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The Implementation of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development in Primary Education in Taiwan

Chao-Wen Liu

A dissertation submitted to the University of Bristol in accordance with the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Social Science and Law

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Abstract

Teacher evaluation is an activity of assessing teachers' performance. It is equivalent to teacher appraisal/teacher performance management in England. This study explores the complexities of implementing Teacher Evaluation in primary schools in Taiwan. It concentrates principally on the development of Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan in the light of international research, especially that relating to the English context.

The philosophical perspective with which this study is most closely aligned is constructivism. In particular, using qualitative methods of documentary analysis and interviews, it explores the nature of Teacher Evaluation and the meaning held by implementers. Government publications, including books, journals and other documentation from public institutions were examined to trace the development of Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan, and how it might be influenced by globalisation. Interviews were carried out with 3 head teachers and 7 teachers from 3 primary schools in Taiwan and 3 officers from different levels of official organisations.

A Recommended Model of Teacher Evaluation was synthesised from the review of international research. Using the Recommended Model of Teacher Evaluation to evaluate the implementation of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development in Taiwan, the effectiveness of the project was demonstrated. However, by looking at the empirical data, some limitations were observed, including deficiencies in the administrative system, teachers' heavy workload, the reluctance of teachers to accept changes, and insufficient knowledge of the relevant policy. Other obstacles were noted, including inadequately trained evaluators, the lack of a mechanism for professional dialogue, and the incoherence of the educational policy. This study shows that most teachers agree with the measures in the Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development implemented by the Ministry of Education, although some supplementary measures need to be established in a more sophisticated manner before it can be implemented fully.

Finally, this study further proposes suggestions for a Teacher Evaluation model based on the Recommended Model of Teacher Evaluation, the implementation of the current Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development, and ideal models mentioned by the interviewees.

Acknowledgements

...The sages, whose times are far away from us, [哲人日已遠，]
Were models of great virtue in the distant past. [典型在夙昔。]
By the window sill, I open the book and read. [風簷展書讀，]
And feel the ancient rays of wisdom shining on my face. [古道照顏色。]
[The Poem of Righteousness, by Song Dynasty/Wen, Tian-xiang]

When one opens this thesis, one finds the presentation of a number of teachers' stories. The history of education in Taiwan is constructed by valuable stories like these, and they play an important role in the country's overall development. By undertaking this study, my respect towards teachers has dramatically increased. I hope that their great stories can be honestly presented in this thesis.

A PhD study is not done in isolation. Besides expressing my appreciation to the educators who participated in my research, I feel indebted to my family, friends and teachers, whose intellectual, emotional and practical help made this study possible.

First and foremost, my sincerest gratitude is extended to my supervisor, Dr. Sheila Trahar, whose encouragement and guidance has enabled me to develop a good understanding of the subject. Inspiration and support have also come from my former advisor, Professor Marilyn Osborn, whose clarity of thought and expert supervision enabled me to work through my frequent crises of confidence.

My warmest thanks are extended to Dr. Cheng Teh Lee and Dr. Khoo Hui Chi, both of whom have kindly helped me through the mess and frustration I experienced through these years. I am particularly grateful to Hui Chi, who generously gave me her time to read this thesis and offered some suggestions.

I also wish to thank my family. My parents have provided me with encouragement, especially when I started doubting myself. I am greatly indebted to my children, Frances and Sean, who unquestioningly accepted that my time was divided between them and this study.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my wife to thank her for believing in me, and for helping me to complete my lifelong dream.

Chao-Wen Liu
Bristol, 12 May 2010

Authors' Declaration

"I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original, except where indicated by special reference in the text, and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any other academic award. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author."

SIGNED: ..... DATE: .....12.... May....2010.....

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Abbreviations

ASCL	Association of School and College Leaders (in England)
ATA	Assessment of Teacher Achievement (in Taiwan)
ATL	Association of Teachers and Lecturers (in England)
CHC	Confucian Heritage Culture
CPD	Continuing Professional Development (in England)
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families (in England)
DfEE	The Department for Education and Employment (in England)
DfES	Department for Education and Skills (in England)
GB	Governing Body (in England)
LA	Local Authority (in England)
LGE	Local Government Employers (in England)
MoE	Ministry of Education (in Taiwan)
MTS	Mentor Teacher System
NAPO	National Alliance of Parents Organization (in Taiwan)
NASUWT	National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (in England)
NTA	National Teachers' Association , R. O. C. (in Taiwan)
PAT	Professional Association of Teachers (in England)
PDP	Professional Development Plan (in the New Mexico, US)
PRP	Performance Related Pay (in England)
RIG	Rewards and Incentives Group (in England)
SIP	School Improvement Partner (in England)
STPCD	School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document (in England)
STRB	School Teachers' Review Body (in England)
TEPD	Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development (in Taiwan)
TGS	Teacher Grading System (in Taiwan)
TLR	Teaching and Learning Responsibilities (in England)
TPM	Teacher Performance Management (in England)
WAMG	Workforce Agreement Monitoring group (in England)

Chapter 1 Introduction

Teacher evaluation is an activity of assessing teachers' performance. It is equivalent to teacher appraisal/teacher performance management in England. This study investigates the complexities of implementing teacher evaluation (hereafter abbreviated as TE) in primary schools in the Taiwanese context. It concentrates principally on the development of TE in Taiwan in the light of international research, especially that relating to the English context.

This chapter is divided into seven sections: rationale (Section 1.1), research aim, objectives and questions (Section 1.2), brief definitions (Section 1.3), assumptions (Section 1.4), methodology (Section 1.5), potential limitations (Section 1.6) and thesis plan (Section 1.7).

1.1 Rationale

1.1.1 Taiwan and Globalisation:

Giddens defined globalisation as:

> A complex set of processes, not a single one. And these operate in a contradictory or oppositional fashion. Most people think of it as simple 'pulling away' power or influence from local communities and nations into the global arena. And indeed this is one of its consequences. Nations do lose some of the economic power they once had. However, it also has an opposite effect. Globalization not only pulls upwards, it pushes downwards, creating new pressures for local autonomy. (Giddens, 1999: 3)

In many ways, the globalisation of policy and practice in education is a response to the common problems faced by many of the world's societies and education systems (Walker & Dimmock, 2002). How to think globally and act locally is an unavoidable path for developed countries. As Porter (2000) pointed out, "cultural differences can contribute to specialised advantages so important in improving the prosperity of nations" (p. 27). The accumulation of globalised narrations from different countries is conducive to enriching the academic field of school effectiveness and educational change. Thus, the various nations' experiences of teacher evaluation can inspire Taiwan to develop its own model of TE.

The contrasts between educational systems and between schools and educational systems (for instance, English-speaking systems and the countries of East Asia) reveal significant discrepancies. To cite an example, Confucianism influences Taiwan not only in

its national development goals and political loyalty, but also in its culture and education (Altbach, 1997: 237-238). Previous researchers (e.g. Walker & Dimmock, 2000: 164) claimed that cultural differences between English-speaking Western countries, (the U.S. and the U.K.) and Chinese societies (such as Hong Kong and Taiwan) reflect what has been labelled as the individualism/collectivism dimension. In other words, in Chinese societies influenced by Confucian heritage culture (hereafter abbreviated as CHC), the collective is more important than the individual; the interests of the collective supersede those of the individual. Thus we need to distinguish between individual and collective performance. Although the practice of classroom teaching may still be conducted in isolation from other adults at the beginning of the twenty-first century, most other aspects of teaching management and leadership are social activities. However, teacher evaluation is deeply influenced by traditional culture. Hence it is important to recognise that teacher evaluation in Taiwan will draw inspiration from various nations' experiences, while seeking to respect its traditional culture at the same time. Therefore this study will not only consider the extent to which research into TE in Taiwan is influenced by global research, but it also explores the possibilities for developing a model of TE that is congruent with the cultural context of Taiwan.

There are two reasons why I want to explore the education systems of other countries, especially that of England. The first reason is generally influenced by two Chinese idioms, both of which serve as a basis for my comparative study of education.

> "The stones of other hills may be used to polish gems." (*The Analects of Confucius*) 他山之石,可以攻錯 (論語)

This idiom means that one can remedy one's own defects by listening to another's suggestions. In other words, we can follow a good example to improve our weaknesses.

> "The tangerine moves to the Huai River and becomes the trifoliate mandarin" *(Zhou Ritual)* 橘逾淮而爲枳 (周禮).

This idiom means that a measure may be effective in certain situations, but using that measure in another circumstance may bring failure. In terms of the two idioms, another country's experience is 'the useful stone' or 'the trifoliate mandarin'. The key lies in placing another country's experience into the Taiwanese context and finding out its meaning within the new environment.

Secondly, numerous studies, in Taiwan, have introduced the development of English education (Fu, 1998; Huang, 2003; Wu, 2005; Liu, 2006; Chang, 2007; Chen, 2007; Liu,

2007) and showed successful education experiences in England. The implication of these studies is that the Taiwanese Government is borrowing the successful experiences of English education to influence its educational reforms.

With regard to the consideration of international perspectives, my standpoint is that the Taiwanese cultural context should be valued. Also, local implementers' voices need to be respected, as they may be influenced by cultural factors which are very different from those of the West. For example, individualism is generally emphasised in Western culture, but collectivism is often more important in the East (this will be described in detail in Section 2.2.2). In my study, I will examine the development of TE in Taiwan in the light of international research, especially that pertaining to the English context. Drawing inspiration from other countries' experience of TE might be able to help Taiwan develop a more effective TE system.

1.1.2 Why Teacher Evaluation? Perspectives of an Educator and a Parent

"During the 1990s, most education systems in the English-speaking world moved towards some notion of performance management." (West-Burnham, O'Neill and Bradbury, 2001: 6) This is largely attributed to the cumulative and increasingly widespread perception that education systems were under-achieving or failing to perform. The anxiety was reinforced by the increasing amounts of data available, which allowed more specific and detailed measurement of various components of school performance.

My interest in teacher evaluation derives from the disparities I perceive between educational research and practice, from being a father and my observations and experiences as a head teacher in The Affiliated Experimental Elementary School of National Chengchi University in Taiwan. As a parent, I am appreciative of some of the teachers who have taught my two children. The quality of the teaching profoundly influenced my children's development. However, not all students are fortunate enough to receive education of a high quality, and one of the factors contributing to high quality education is the variable expertise in teachers. One of my son's teachers was so temperamental that her mood during teaching led to students being frightened. This has subsequently affected their emotional development. She often used sarcastic language in her oral feedback for students and, as a consequence, children use the same language to criticise other people. In addition, some new teachers in our school adopt what they call 'active teaching methods' that lead to students becoming over-excited, even out of control.

They explain that the modern teacher is expected to tolerate students' behaviour. According to the present regulation of TE, to struggle against the problem of inadequate teachers is the responsibility of the "Teacher Evaluation Committee". Unfortunately, the Committee could not do anything to challenge the inappropriate behaviour of teachers because the committee members are selected from school teachers, and in Taiwanese school culture, no one is willing to harm their relationship with their colleagues.

In contrast, under the pressure of international competition, teacher evaluation in universities experienced a sudden growth in Taiwan.

> Since 28th December 1995, TE in institutions of higher education in Taiwan has become compulsory according to the *University Act*. The 21st Article of the *University Act* states that a college should formulate a teacher evaluation system that (1) decides on teacher promotion, and (2) continues or terminates employment based on college teachers' achievement in teaching, research and so forth. The effects of implementing TE in colleges caused some lecturers with insufficient publications to retire earlier. After that, universities started to formulate schools' regulations based on the *University Act* and began executing TE. According to the official documentation, 47.9% of the universities in Taiwan present their regulations and related methods online, and 60% of the colleges stipulate that teachers have to pass the evaluation before receiving a promotion. (cited from http://epaper.heeact.edu.tw/archive/2007/09/03/330.aspx)

Generally, teaching is a respected career in Taiwan, because teachers are the role models for students in every aspect. Moreover, the impression of the teacher's role is to transmit his/her knowledge to his/her pupils. However, the National Foundation of Policy Research described some negative news about teachers' improper behaviour, and this news became publicly known when it was reported by the mass media recently. In Kaohsiung, a 57-year-old homeroom teacher was accused of violating a schoolgirl many times. He also forced the student to have sexual intercourse with him. In another case, a school teacher took spirits to share with more than ten of his students at junior high school. One of them died because of alcohol abuse. In other news, two deans of a college were also suspected of violating their students when they participated in a social event after school.

The impression of teachers' roles in Taiwan was badly influenced by the news above; in other words, the majority of the teachers became demoralised. Such events caused me to think about whether there are any limitations or weaknesses in the current system of teacher evaluation in practice. Further, what are TE's implications for the teaching profession if we were to describe teaching as a profession?

According the "Online Dictionary of the Social Sciences", a profession can be defined as:

> ... an occupational group that is largely self-regulating. Such a group has the legitimate authority (usually delegated from government) to set its own standards for entrance, to admit new members, to establish a code of conduct, to discipline members and it claims to have a body of knowledge (achieved through education) which legitimizes its autonomy and distinctiveness. Examples of professions would be physicians, lawyers, clinical psychologists, or real estate agents. (cited from http://bitbucket.icaap.org/dict.pl?alpha=P)

Millerson considers that if an occupation is termed a profession, it should have three features, namely "education and training certified by examination", "a code of professional conduct oriented towards the 'public good'" and "a powerful professional organization" (Millerson,1964, cited from Whitty, 2006: 2). To be a teacher, one not only has to complete the relevant education and obtain the teachers' qualifications, but must also have knowledge of the educational professional, pedagogical content and subject professional (Shulman 1987: 6). Thus, from the conditions of "standards for entrance", "admission of new members", "code of conduct", "discipline of members" and "body of knowledge", teaching can be declared as a professional occupation.

Since teachers are important people (Hazeltine, 2006) who influence the development of a child's personality and learning, the foundation for the development of a national policy strongly recommends the implementation of TE for maintaining the quality of education in Taiwan (cited from http://www.npf.org.tw/particle-1798-3.html).

TE is the critical measure to encourage teachers' personal development and enhance students' learning. Although the importance of teachers' quality in Taiwan is emphasised, TE is still not legislated in Taiwan. As a result of the opposition from the National Teachers' Union, there is still a sizable gap between the views of teachers' groups and the Government. Hence, at the heart of my study is an attempt to close the gap between theory and practice in the application of performance management systems in Taiwan. I had two opportunities to discuss the issue of primary school teacher evaluation with the Minister of MoE in the summers of 2007 and 2008, when I collected some data in Taiwan. He showed concern about my study and expressed his eagerness to know the results of the study. It is hoped that my research will be able to support the Taiwanese Government in formulating related regulations.

Varied aspects of English educational issues were recently discussed in Taiwan (Fu, 1998; Huang, 2003; Lee, 2006; Liu, 2006; Chang, 2007; Chen, 2007; Liu, 2007). Liu (2006) described the successful educational reform in Britain since 1997. Chang (2007: 1-22) explored the development of TE. Fu (1998) documented the development of TE in England. All of the previous studies are based on the official documentations. There is a paucity of empirical research which allows the implementers' voices to be heard. In addition, their data does not take into account the implementation of the present regulation in 2006, i.e. the *Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006* (DfES, 2006). My study uses documentary analysis and interviews of implementers and examines how the most recent data from the English government can be applied to the Taiwanese context. In my study, implementers are defined as teachers, head teachers and relevant officers.

1.2 Research Aim, Objectives and Questions

1.2.1 Research Aim

This is an investigation into the complexities of implementing teacher evaluation at primary school level in Taiwan. It focuses primarily on the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan in the light of consideration of international research, especially that pertaining to the English context, and aims to provide a significant resource for future enactment and promotion of TE policy in Taiwan.

1.2.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of my research are:

1. To review the international literature relating to the strengths and limitations of teacher evaluation models.
2. To draw u pon the English experience of implementing teacher evaluation.
3. To carry out a detailed critical analysis of the development of the TE policy in Taiwan.
4. To undertake empirical studies in Taiwan to elicit implementers' perspectives of the strengths and limitations of the trial/experimental models.
5. To explore the implications of TE in Taiwan.
6. To apply my personal experience and knowledge as a teacher to the research.

1.2.3 Research Questions

The aim of this study is translated into seven research questions:

1. What is th e trend of TE in the international context?
2. To what extent does the international development of TE significantly influence the TE model in Taiwan?
3. How has T E been developed in the English context?
4. What is the nature and effectiveness of existing evaluation systems and those that are being trialled in Taiwan's primary schools in terms of:
   (1) Policy and practice?
   (2) The evaluation culture and climate in school?
   (3) Effectiveness of the goal(s)?
5. What are the implementers' perspectives of the potential advantages and limitations of the evaluation of teacher professional development?
6. What factors are likely to facilitate or hinder the implementation of statutory performance evaluation programmes at the primary school level in Taiwan, in the light of the English experience and the implementers' viewpoints?
7. What impl ications do the findings of this study have for issues of TE?

1.3 Definition

Before I embark on discussing my study, I shall explain how I distinguish between the terms "teacher evaluation" and "teacher appraisal", and to what extent these terms will be adopted. I will be discussing the terms "evaluation" and "teacher evaluation" in greater detail in Chapter 3.

In Chinese, both 'evaluation' and 'appraisal' mean 'assessment' ("評鑑"). The term appraisal is popularly used in the UK, whilst evaluation is used in the U.S. There are a few overlaps between the meanings of appraisal, assessment and evaluation in English; therefore I will clarify the terms I am using in my thesis.

According to the Oxford Online Dictionary, appraisal is "a formal evaluation of the performance of an employee at work over a particular period; evaluation or assessment in this manner, intended to improve individual and organizational performance", and

evaluation is defined as "the action of evaluating or determining the value of (a mathematical expression, a physical quantity, etc.), or of estimating the force of (probabilities, evidence, etc.)".

However, the Department of Education and Science (abbreviated as DES) has different viewpoints about the conventions proposed by DES in 1985 (Wragg *et al.*, 1996). The definitions of the aforementioned terms are given below:

> Evaluation: a general term used to describe any activity by the institution or LEA where the quality of the provision is the subject of systematic study.
>
> Appraisal: emphasizing the forming of qualitative judgments about an activity, a person or an organization. (Wragg *et al.*, 1996: 3)

The Department for Education and Skills (2005) presents a coherent view. Appraisal is defined as "the process of examining options for meeting policy objectives and weighing up the costs, benefits, risks and uncertainties of these options before a decision is made", and evaluation is "a retrospective analysis of a policy to assess how successful or otherwise it has been and what lessons can be learnt for the future." (2005: 1)

Montgomery and Hadfield (1989) organised those concepts into the figure below to explain the relationship between evaluation and appraisal:

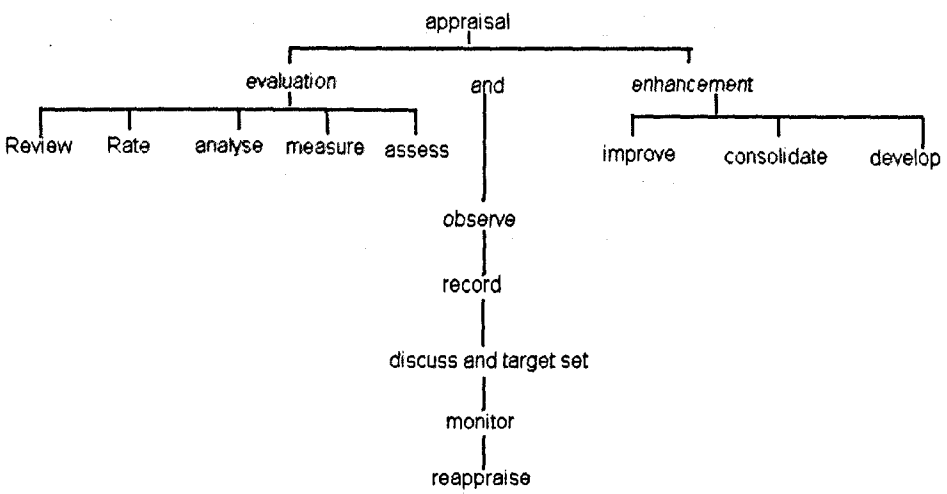

Figure 1-1: The structure of Appraisal
(Cited from Montgomery & Hadfield, 1989: 23)

According to Figure 1.1, appraisal includes evaluation and enhancement. Evaluation is more than looking over past events in a structured way, as in a review. It may include reviewing, rating, analysing, measuring and assessing, but it also implies value judgments

about what is seen and done. Enhancement implies improving, consolidating and developing.

According to the discussion above, "appraisal" has a wider scope and a holistic process, including the implementation of evaluation programmes and related supplementary measures (i.e. improving quality strategies), whilst "evaluation" is focused on a specific programme. The difference between "appraisal" and "evaluation" is that appraisal emphasises improvement, while evaluation focuses on judgment.

The reason for using evaluation instead of appraisal is because it is a term that is commonly used in Taiwan; therefore, it is a term with which most teachers are familiar. A great number of official documents, like guidebooks for head teachers and school staff in Taiwan use the term evaluation. Even the regulation and experiment plan held by the Ministry of Education (hereafter abbreviated as MoE) in Taiwan applied the term evaluation. In contrast, "teacher appraisal" was replaced by "teacher performance management" in the UK. The equivalent of the latter term in Taiwan is "Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development". Hence, I choose to adopt the term 'evaluation' in my study (apart from citations for my literature review).

1.4 Assumptions

The assumptions underlying this study are derived from my personal experience. I have lived, and carried out research in both England and Taiwan. On such a basis, I anticipate that there would more deliberation in the policy-making process in England, and that there would be evidence of greater levels of satisfaction in teachers' perception. The reasons behind such an assumption are based on the recent policy changes, as embodied in the following:

- *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983) suggests that the effects of evaluation could lead to the best teachers obtaining relatively greater rewards for their classroom expertise.
- *Better Schools* (DES, 1985a), showed the official government position on primary school education. Arguments advanced by Sir Keith Joseph to the 1984 North of England Conference for the establishment of the teacher profession identified and removed incompetent teachers. This document emphasises resource management and, more specifically, the management of the teaching force.

- *Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal* (DES, 1985b) explores the management responsibility of heads. Attempts to introduce evaluation would mean that each individual's professional autonomy would have to be reconsidered in the light of the overall requirements of the schools.
- *The Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulation* (DES, 1991a), is the first formal regulation of teacher evaluation.
- *School Teacher Appraisal (Circular 12/91)* (DES, 1991b) describes in detail the process and methods of teacher evaluation.
- *Education (School Teacher Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2001* (DfES, 2001) requires governing bodies to appraise the performance of their head teachers on an annual basis to ensure that objectives have been agreed or set for them on or before 31st December each year.
- Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006 (DfES, 2006) is the statutory basis for performance management in England.

The obvious shift in emphasis from the assessment of teachers' achievement to teachers' professional development will be explored in my study. The latter focuses almost entirely on the professional development needs of each teacher, with targets (using the language of the appraisal regulations) on professional development activities (i.e. the support needed to reach the next stage in the career of the teacher). The education policy of teacher performance management implies that encouraging English teachers to perform better in their professional career would contribute to promoting the quality of teaching.

Since the *Teacher Education Act* was enacted in Taiwan in 1994, the issue of how to maintain and manage the quality of school teachers' performance has become the main focus of educational reform. Although attaining a good quality in school teachers' performance is a common aim in Taiwan, the education policy of teacher evaluation still has many flaws. The main cause of the problem is that Taiwan's National Union of Teachers (NUT) strongly opposes the TE policy. Hence, it is important to explore NUT's viewpoints, particularly when the Government is trying to implement TE smoothly. Thus, the chair of Taiwan's National Union of Teachers is selected as an interviewee for my study.

From the administrators' viewpoint (administrators refer to officers and head teachers), the policy-making process and implementation of teacher performance management (hereafter abbreviated as TPM) in England is more deliberative than in Taiwan, while the perception of teachers is also likely to differ. I have made some initial assumptions, and they are described below:

- The development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan can be inspired by the English experience.
- The perception of teachers, head teachers and officers varies from one country to another.
- The challenges for Taiwan in developing TE are influenced by CHC; therefore it is recognised that some benefits can be reaped from critiquing Western models and considering their relevance carefully.

The present regulation of the Assessment of Teacher Achievement (hereafter abbreviated as ATA) in Taiwan cannot facilitate professional development, not only because the concepts of the regulation are too old-fashioned (in relation to contemporary theory of the teaching profession), but because it tends to borrow TE models uncritically from international research.

I believe that these assumptions can be evaluated when the study is completed.

1.5 Methodology

Generally, my research emphasised meaning rather than "the truth". This meaning was generated from the cultural context in Taiwan. In other words, this study did not explore "what is TE"; instead, it focused on such questions as "why do we need TE?", "how do we implement TE?", "when is the best timing to implement TE?" and "what is the meaning of TE in Taiwan?" from the implementers' perspectives. If the meaning of TE cannot be consistent with the implementers' viewpoints, the effects of implementing the system will be reduced, and may even be rendered meaningless.

Regarding TE, teachers were evaluated, but they were also implementers of this policy. Traditionally, teachers were "the recipients of the educational policy" and were often "dominated by the government", as they rarely had the opportunity to participate in the formulation of the policy. However, if policy implementers, including officers, head teachers and teachers, did not fully participate in the policy-making process, the policy

would be alien to their values and beliefs. These implementers might silently endure what they disagreed with, or they might even carry out the evaluation procedures with a perfunctory attitude. In contrast, through some relevant dialogue with the wider environment, these implementers' meanings could be embraced into the policy. Such a policy is alive, and thereby becomes meaningful.

Therefore, this study aimed to elicit the meaning of TE from the implementers' perspectives. The interview method was used to encourage my participants to express their opinions about TE in order to generate an enforceable policy.

The methodological paradigm with which this study is most closely aligned is constructivism, as addressed by Guba and Lincoln (1994). My goal was to understand and reconstruct the meaning of the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan in the light of international research. In particular, I explored the nature of teacher evaluation and the meaning held by implementers. Thus the meaning, constructed by multiple interpretations in the Taiwanese context, was identified as the reality in my study. In this study, I believe that an effective policy is coalesced to form the needs of society, the coherence of theory development and the implementers' acceptance, and the meaning of the policy is built on the implementers' interpretations. Therefore the aim was for increasingly informed and sophisticated constructions, moving towards consensus, as well as increasing everyone's awareness of the content of TE and the meaning of competing constructions. My role in this study was that of a participant and a facilitator of this process. Advocacy and activism are the key features of a constructivist inquiry.

The meaning of teacher evaluation may be interpreted through multiple, apprehensible, and sometimes conflicting social realities that are produced by different implementers, but that may change as they become more well-informed about the process. In this study, I recognised that construction is contingent on multiple "knowledge" related to social, political, cultural, economic, and ethnic factors; hence, different interpreters would inevitably present different interpretations. This reflects a relativist ontology in which "realities are apprehensible in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature and dependent for their form and content on the individual persons or groups holding the constructions" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994: 110). Based on the ontology, hermeneutics and dialectics underlined my research methodology. Through such a process, more sophisticated constructions were formed. The nature of TE as a social construction was acknowledged. Individual teachers'

constructions could be elicited and refined through the interaction between and among respondents and myself (researcher); in other words, we were interactively linked so that the findings are "literally created" as the investigation proceeded (Guba & Lincoln, 1998: 207).

A qualitatively-oriented study was chosen for this inquiry, using multiple case studies and drawing on different methods of data collection in order to construct multiple interpretations of teacher evaluation from related fields. The information collected will, in some circumstances, be relevant to more than one research question. In this study, I adopted documentary analysis and interviews. Documentary analysis was used to examine government publications, including books, journals and other documentation from public institutions, in order to trace the development of TE in the Taiwanese context, and how it might be influenced by globalisation. Meanwhile drawing upon some dissertations, which investigate educators' perspectives of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development (hereafter abbreviated as TEPD) in each county respectively, I carried out a meta-analysis of teachers' viewpoints based on the statistical results. From this analysis, I gained a general overview of how teachers feel about TEPD in Taiwan. Moreover, the English official documentations were also explored in order to understand the development of TPM in England. Some of the relevant aspects in the English system provided an insight into the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan.

Interviews were carried out with 3 head teachers and 7 teachers from 3 primary schools (in order to present balanced views from different "socio-economic status" area, an urban school and a suburban school were selected from 178 primary schools participating in the experimental Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development plan) in Taiwan and 3 officers from different levels of official organisations. The teacher is an implementer with a direct interest in teacher evaluation. The head teacher is the one who executes TE and has indirect interests in it. The chief of the National Union of Teachers, who represents all teachers, knows the teachers' heartfelt wishes, and can clearly explain the standpoint of the National Union of Teachers and the development of the resistance movement. Both the officers of the MoE and those from the local Bureau of Education represent the government's position. Consequently, my interviews investigated the multi-dimensional views of educators' perceptions about the implementation of TEPD in Taiwan. By integrating the above data with different implementers' voices during the policy-making

process of teacher evaluation, it is hoped that the effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD could be facilitated in Taiwan.

In order to understand the implementation of teacher evaluation in different countries, I also drew upon my informal conversations with teachers and head teachers in England.

1.6 Potential Limitations

This study was considerably restricted by events and circumstances, among which three specific points will be raised here: "the issue of conceptual equivalence", "methodological complexities" and "changes in TE".

1.6.1 The issue of Conceptual Equivalence

In different cultures, concepts may have variable meanings. For example, an apparently unambiguous term like "effective teaching" can have different meanings in different cultural contexts. Osborn claims that such an issue is called "conceptual equivalence":

> Conceptual equivalence is one of the most basic theoretical questions in comparative analysis and is whether the concepts under study have any equivalent meaning in the cultures under study (Osborn, 2004: 269).

Many terms do not have universal definitions, but contextual definitions; likewise, the concept of evaluation assumes a different connotation in Chinese societies, such as in Hong Kong and Taiwan, where direct face-to-face exchange of views – more associated with Anglo-American culture - is considered threatening (Walker & Dimmock, 2000: 175). Because the Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) has a profound impact on Taiwan, particularly with regard to the differences between collectivism and individualism, some concepts or elements of TPM developed from Western cultures could have a different meaning in the Taiwanese context. In cross-cultural research, a major challenge is to "provide conceptual definitions that have equivalent, though not necessarily identical meaning in various cultures" (Osborn, 2004: 269). In this study, the translation issue was a key challenge; therefore, my aim was to achieve conceptual and linguistic equivalence in this thesis.

In my study, all the terms were used carefully and were explained with reference to the cultural context. I avoided using certain words if their meanings were not considered to be equivalent in different cultures.

1.6.2 Methodological Complexities

Interview is the key method for collecting data in my study. Pouliot (2007: 370) claims that there are four methodological limits or challenges in interviewing; 1) similarity in language, 2) the taken-for-granted culture, 3) quasi-theoretical posture, and 4) the susceptibility to deception and misleading accounts. In my research, language will not be a barrier as all my interviewees are Taiwanese educators. In Taiwan, Mandarin is the official language used in interviews.

It is reasonable that some teachers will not feel happy with this research. I am aware that some topics, particularly politics or private lives, may be too difficult to handle unless an interviewer is more experienced. Teachers may give indirect or vague answers, and may even avoid giving a response. Some interviewees may express unease about face-to-face interviews, feeling that the result of the interview may be reviewed by a superior. Therefore, they may feel that they ought to give a rational (and perhaps less personal) answer because their individual experiences may not represent the views of others. Thus interview data must be gathered with particular care and on more than one occasion. In my study, interview data will be combined with official and personal documentation, all of which will be subjected to further analysis.

Wragg (2002) suggests three particular devices to get round a difficult problem of interview: the "guess who technique", "illustrative event" and "projective technique". By "illustrative event" Wragg means that "when people talk about certain issues their language is often vague" (p. 157). For instance, he points out that teachers often talk about classroom management being "busy". A participant might be asked to describe a few illustrative events, i.e. things which happen during a class which indicate that the group was "busy". When participants are reluctant to talk about their own fears or desires, "projective technique" offers a device which may produce valuable information. Wragg provides an example: give a picture to the subject, and ask "this is a photograph of physical aggression between two pupils. What do you think the teacher should do?" (ibid) I believe that Wragg's methods are useful for solving the possible problems of teachers' attitude, hence, I will attempt to utilise "illustrative event" and "projective technique" in my interviews.

TE is a sensitive issue after all; it may cause participants to be uncomfortable. As a researcher, I will establish a good relationship with the participants before I undertake my

research to ensure that participants feel comfortable with me. I will introduce myself and explain my research to participants. We may exchange our teaching experiences in different contexts or positions, as this can help to break the ice before I interview them. When interviewees give vague answers during their interviews, I will probe them by saying "I don't understand...", "can you give an example...", or "can you describe ... in..." Such probing will be helpful in terms of grasping what they mean. In addition, I will prepare a wall chart and some booklets about TPM and teacher professional development to discuss with them.

1.6.3 Changes in TE

The regulations relating to TE have been changed in both England and Taiwan recently. In fact, the continuous development of TE in both countries presents a challenge in my research.

In England, the Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulations 1991 was replaced by the Education (School Teacher Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2000 on 1st September 2000, subjected to parliamentary approval, and was replaced by The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006 (this came into force on 1st September 2007). All the changes not only resulted from the requirements for social development, but also from the shift of the education policy paradigm towards accountability and responsibility. These changes will be explored in my study, and I shall give particular focus to the last regulation. With regard to the changes of TE in Taiwan, Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teachers and Administrative Staff in Schools of All Levels, which is a teacher's achievement evaluation, began in 1947. From 1971, Taiwanese teachers were evaluated by the Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment. This is still in use today. Numerous studies (Wang, 1987; Chang, 1992; Chang, 1988; Huang, 1983; Xie, 1993) examined the regulation and found that it cannot promote teachers' professionalism and the teaching quality (the reasons have been briefly discussed in Section 1.3). Taipei City developed a System of Improving the Teaching Quality in Secondary and Primary Schools in Taipei, which aimed to promote the ability of new teachers in 1999. Taipei County and Kaohsiung City respectively implemented experiments of teacher evaluation in 2000 and 2005. According to their final reports, such experiments have already facilitated the teachers' profession, and have improved teaching and students' learning (cited from Young 2005: 117, 123, 128). But the

actual effects of these experiments still need to be examined by a more precise meta-evaluation, which I will conduct in this research.

Further, the individual teacher evaluation projects in Taipei City, Kaohsiung City and Taipei County cover only three small areas in Taiwan, and are only used as initial experiments. As a consequence of these successful experiments, the MoE formulated and implemented a three-year *Plan of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development* since 2006. The effects of this experiment will be evaluated and discussed in detail. Up until the present day, the three-year experimental programme has already been completed, but legislative issues are still under discussion. The MoE established a new experimental project, but attitudes towards it remain vague. Such uncertainty acts as a limitation for my study.

1.7 Thesis Plan

My thesis is divided into three parts. In the first part, I introduce the background of the theme, i.e. the Taiwanese context, so that readers can have a general idea and understanding about Taiwan. This general background helps to contextualise my study. Also, I adopt constructivism as my methodology as I believe that it is necessary to highlight the nature of evaluation and teacher evaluation before eliciting a theoretical framework from the data collected. Hence, I have two chapters on introducing Taiwan and the concept of evaluation before discussing my methodology.

In the second part, documentations of TE are explored from the perspectives of international research, the English experience and the Taiwanese context. There are two main axes in this part, namely a geographical axis that assesses how global research can be usefully applied to local studies, and a chronological axis which involves a historical approach.

In the final part of my study, empirical data are used to bring out the implication of TE for Taiwan. The effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD in Taiwan will be examined using the criteria put forward in Part II, as proposed through international research trends and the English experience. This study also discusses the strengths and limitations of several TE trial models, and makes relevant recommendations for a more effective TE system.

The remainder of the thesis will be divided into ten chapters. The brief content of each chapter is given below:

Chapter 2 locates the study theoretically and discusses some of its key concepts. The Taiwanese context of this study is explored in a discussion of the concepts of "localisation", "internationalisation" and "national and regional interests". They will be examined in terms of being potential forces for either homogeneity or diversification with reference to the realm of education in Taiwan.

Chapter 3 explores the nature of teacher evaluation in current research. It is hoped that this chapter will facilitate the understanding of teacher evaluation's implications in Taiwan through close scrutiny of the data gathered.

Chapter 4 presents the design of the empirical research undertaken. The central questions which guide my approach are considered. I will also discuss how the geographical locations for the data collection were selected, what form and type of data were required, and how they were collected. Further, this chapter presents the research design itself and considers each research instrument and its application in this study. Ethical issues will also be described.

Chapter 5 moves on to establish the critical literature review of teacher evaluation models in the light of international approaches. The criteria for examining the effectiveness of trial teacher evaluation projects will also be investigated in this chapter.

Chapter 6 researches the development of teacher evaluation in England. It includes analysis of official documents and informal interviews with educators in England. It draws upon the English experience of implementing teacher performance management (TPM), and contemplates ways in which Taiwan can draw inspiration from the English experience.

Chapter 7 provides a historical overview and the implications of teacher evaluation in Taiwan. It focuses on the process of the policy-making related to teacher evaluation and considers the regulations and implementation of TEPD in Taiwan. It also reviews the 3 experiments of teacher evaluation in Taipei City, Kaohsiung City and Taipei County.

Chapter 8 explores the implications of TE by examining different implementers' views. I will summarise this chapter by reflecting on the data analysis.

Chapter 9 discusses the key themes emerging from my data and considers these themes in relation to the relevant literature.

Chapter 10 undertakes a detailed review of empirically-grounded studies in Taiwan. The strengths and limitations of the trial evaluation models will be elicited through implementers' perspectives.

Chapter 11 describes and analyses the major themes which emerged from the data collected. In this chapter, my research questions and objectives will be addressed based on the findings in the previous chapters. This chapter summarises all the findings in the thesis and closes with a discussion of the strengths and limitations of my study. In addition, I will consider the implications of my study for policy-makers and researchers. Suggestions for future research will also be made.

Chapter 2 Introduction to Taiwan

This study aims to investigate the complexities of implementing teacher evaluation at primary school level in Taiwan. It focuses primarily on the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan in the light of international research. This chapter reviews the relevant literature on Taiwan to locate the study theoretically, and to discuss some of its key concepts in relation to the Taiwanese context.

The development of teacher evaluation in the Taiwanese context is explored using the following concepts: "Taiwanese Localisation", "Internationalisation", "Confucian Heritage Culture" (CHC), and "Deconstruction and Reconstruction". These concepts are used to examine the potential factors in the realm of education under the development of democracy in Taiwan.

In this chapter, Taiwan is introduced from a global perspective, including Images of Taiwan (Section 2.1), Socio-Culture and Socio-Politics in Taiwan (Section 2.2), and Education in Taiwan (Section 2.3), which serves as a basis for exploring subsequent work.

2.1 Images of Taiwan

When Portuguese navigators sailed to Taiwan 450 years ago, they were so attracted by its beauty that they exclaimed, "Ilha Formosa," meaning "beautiful island." That is how Europeans first came to know about Taiwan, and Taiwan was known as Formosa thereafter.

2.1.1 Location of Taiwan

Taiwan is an island situated in between the eastern coast of Asia and the western Pacific. It comprises a total area of 13,814 square miles (Taiwan's land territory is 36,000 square kilometres), about the size of Holland. With 23 million people living on it, Taiwan has the 48th largest population in the world. Hence, "this island is one of the most densely populated places on earth - nearly double that of Japan and almost five times that of [Mainland] China" (Copper, 1999: 8).

2.1.2 Brief History of Taiwan

Taiwan is officially known as the Republic of China (ROC). Founded in 1912, the ROC is Asia's first constitutional republic. Taiwan was one of the Chinese provinces during the Ming (1368 - 1644 A.D.) and Qing dynasties (1644 - 1911 A.D.). From 1895 to 1945,

Taiwan was a Japanese colony. The ROC government, led by the Kuomintang (KMT), relocated to Taiwan in 1949 when the Chinese Communist Party established the People's Republic of China (PRC) on the mainland (Cooper, 2000), and maintained uninterrupted leadership of Taiwan for 55 years until its replacement by the Democratic Progressive Party (the second largest party in Taiwan, hereafter abbreviated as DPP) in 2000. The DPP has since exercised jurisdiction over Taiwan, Penghu, Kinmen, Matsu, and numerous other islets. The two sides of the Strait of Taiwan have since been governed as separate territories.

2.1.3 People in Taiwan

The majority of the people in Taiwan are descendants of immigrants known as "Hoklo", from the southern Fujian [Min-nan] province, and the "Hakka", from the neighbouring province of Guangdong, who left the Central Plains of China more than three hundred years ago (Mao, 1997; Copper, 1996).

After World War II (1937 - 1945), the Chinese commenced a civil war between the Nationalist Party (KMT) and the Communist Party. President Chiang of the ROC and its central KMT government lost in the ideological struggle and were forced to retreat to Taiwan in 1949. Millions of Mainlanders, followers of the KMT government, flooded into this island.

Therefore the Taiwanese population principally comprises four groups, namely the Aborigines (including at least 12 ethnic groups), the Hoklo (from Fujian province in China), the Hakka (from Guangdong province in China) and the Mainlanders (those who came from China in 1945 - 1949). Therefore, we can see that Taiwan is culturally diverse.

2.1.4 Economic and Political Development in the International Context

Although small in size, Taiwan plays a powerful role in the economy of East Asia (Copper, 1996; Boyd & Lee, 1995). Taiwan is renowned for having turned its agricultural and labour-intensive economy into a developing industrial economy in the 1980s, managing to keep pace with the global market for information and communication technology in the 1990s (Law, 2002). The latest statistics indicate that Taiwan's GDP ranks 23rd of all nations. In November 2006, Taiwan's foreign reserves totalled over US$ 250 billion, which was the third largest in the world at that time. Taiwan 's electronic industry, as is widely known, has been occupying an important niche in the global market, with its TFT-LCD

(abbreviation for "thin film transistor liquid crystal display", which is a variant of liquid crystal display) and semiconductor industries leading the world.

Unfortunately, under the pressure from the PRC (Mainland China), the legislated position of Taiwan is not internationally recognised. The ROC seceded from the United Nations in 1972 and the break of ties between the U.S. and the ROC came in 1978. Ever since this island-nation with a sizeable population was excluded from the United Nations, it has been unable to participate in or contribute to the international community. Lacking an internationally recognised legal status, the people of Taiwan are deprived of the position and treatment to which they are duly entitled. This harsh reality faced by Taiwanese people is indeed a political as well as a historical issue.

2.1.5 Government

According to Chapter 10 of the Constitution of Republic of China, the ROC government is divided into three main levels: central, provincial/municipal, and county (Hsien)/city However, the provincial government has become nominal after the revision of the Constitution in 1997, which is defined in Article 109 of Chapter 10.

The central level of government organisation of the ROC is divided into five branches (Yuan): Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination, and Control Yuan (cited from the Office of the President, ROC, http://www.president.gov.tw/en/). In particular, educational affairs are related to the Executive and Legislative Yuan.

The Executive Yuan is the highest administrative organ of this country. As Copper (1996) stated, "Of the five branches (Yuan) of government, the executive Yuan has been, and remains, the most powerful" (p. 92). It is headed by a premier who is nominated by the president. Under the premier are a vice premier and 8 ministers (namely Interior, Foreign Affairs, National Defence, Finance, Education, Justice, Economic Affairs, and Transportation and Communications) by recommendation of the premier (ibid). In ROC, the MoE is the highest organisation to deal with educational affairs.

The Legislative Yuan, the highest law-making body in Taiwan, exercises legislative power on behalf of the people. According to the official website, there are two basic functions of the Legislative Yuan. The first is to decide by resolution statutory or budgetary bills or bills concerning martial law, amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace or treaties, and other important affairs of state, and to propose the amendment of the Constitution, change the nation's territorial boundaries, or impeach the President or Vice

President. The second function is to exercise the power of consent to confirm the appointment of personnel nominated by the ROC President. When the Legislative Yuan convenes each year, it may hear a report on the state of the nation by the President.

For example, related educational bills are drafted by the MoE after collecting and integrating the views of relevant interest groups. Bills are then proposed by the MoE, and are read in the Yuan Sitting (First Reading). After the First Reading, these educational bills are immediately referred to the Committees of Education for examination, or proceed to Second Reading.

The Second Reading is of great importance, in that thorough discussion, revision, re-examination, revocation, and withdrawal are all decided upon at this stage. The bills that have completed the Second Reading will undergo the Third Reading in the following Yuan Sitting. Unless a bill is found self-contradictory, unconstitutional or is in conflict with other laws, only rephrasing can be made in the Third Reading. Only the statutory and budgetary bills are required to go through the entire three-reading procedure in the Legislative Yuan. All other bills merely require two readings to complete the legal procedure and they are subsequently called Acts. The Act is announced by Taiwan's President after such a procedure in the Legislative Yuan.

2.1.6 Summary

Taiwan is a small and densely populated country with great ethnic diversity and a powerful economy. These features imply that Taiwan has a rich pool of human resources, but at the same time, they also highlight the necessity for the educational system to assist in fostering talents and contributing towards the development of the society.

2.2 Socio-Culture and Socio-Politics in Taiwan

Taiwan is historically influenced by different countries. Although it was occupied by the Netherlands and Japan for a century, the dominant culture came from China. Chinese culture encompasses numerous philosophical systems, such as Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, among which Confucianism has been the most influential (Tu, 1996). Taiwan consciously harnessed Confucianism for its national development goals and to instil loyalty towards various policies and maintain stability in the period after the KMT fled

from Mainland China. Furthermore, Confucian beliefs are used to organise educational programmes and processes.

2.2.1 Confucianism

Confucianism is often seen as more of an approach to a philosophy rather than a religion (Tu, 1996). The crux of Confucianism lies in the improvement of self and society. While Confucius was opposed to practices like asking for intervention from the gods, he did address concepts of Heaven (天) in his teachings. According to Confucius, Heaven does have a truth and a set of knowledge for human life, of which emphasis is placed on harmony, happiness and peace. It is through studying, ritual and moral behaviour that we discover this truth and achieve transformation. Since the truth pre-exists the Universe and can be organised, we can realise our goodness and nobility by studying our own nature and the nature of the Universe as dictated by Heaven. We will then be living in accordance with the Will of Heaven.

Confucius believed that a thorough and well-rounded education would create good and noble people, who could help others develop humanity and goodness. For instance, teachers are noble people who can help students develop their goodness and virtues; therefore, they hold a high status in traditional Chinese society. The five rules of human ethics recognised for maintaining a harmony in Confucian thought are: Heaven (天), Earth (地), Sovereign (君), Parent (親), and Teacher (師).

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) claimed that the stability of traditional Chinese society is based on unequal relationships between people. The Wu Lun (五倫 five basic relationships) is: ruler–subjects, father–son, older brother–younger brother, husband–wife and senior friend–junior friend, based on mutual and complementary obligations: junior partners owe seniors respect and obedience. The senior owes the junior partner protection and consideration. The family is the prototype of all social organizations. A person is not primarily an individual but a member of a family. Harmony and consensus are ultimate goals. Virtuous behaviour towards others consists of treating others as one would like to be treated. Virtue with regard to one's tasks in life consists of trying to acquire skills and education, working hard, not spending more than necessary, being patient and persevering. Conspicuous consumption is a taboo, as is losing one's temper. Moderation is enjoyed in all things.

Based on the view of unequal relationships (the first principle), Phuong-Mai *et al.* (2005) illustrate that teachers in the CHC (described more fully in the next section) countries are not just teachers: they are models of correct behaviour. Students stand up when a teacher enters the classroom, and are allowed to speak only when invited/asked to do so. Rarely do students question a teacher. Furthermore, teachers are respected even outside the school compound. An important learning method in Confucian thought is "routine rehearsal can bring about new knowledge" (溫故知新, wen gu zhi xin). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have the same finding in their study: the teacher is supposed to actively teach, and the students are supposed to passively learn. Phuong-Mai et al. describe "in CHC countries, culture has somewhat assigned the classroom to be the teacher's kingdom of sanctity" (2005: 407).

However, not only do teachers play the role of self-transformation, they also help others develop a life of humanity and goodness. Teachers are responsible for improving students' learning abilities and for monitoring their development. In traditional China, learning formed part of the curriculum for the examinations through the Confucian text, *The Great Learning* (one of the *Five Classics and Four Books*). Knowledge is never doubted and should not be challenged. For upward social mobility and the acquisition of personal power in the Imperial era, education was deemed the only way (Turner & Acker, 2002). Based on Confucianism, to be a teacher and to attain higher education were highly regarded, and people usually tried their best to pursue education to the highest level. Traditional values, such as loyalty, filial piety, conformity, industriousness, and cooperation are emphasised in schools. Since a teacher imparts knowledge of the truth of Universe and the wisdom of harmonious interpersonal relationships, s/he is given a high status within the cultural context. Although teachers' status is influenced by the process of democratisation of society, teaching is still a respected profession.

2.2.2 Confucian Heritage Culture

The difference between the West and the East is partly identified by the studies of Hofstede (1980, 1991) and Bond (1991). They point out that the most notable difference between English-speaking Western countries, such as the U.S. and the U.K., and Chinese societies, such as Hong Kong and Taiwan, relates to what has been labelled the individualism/collectivism dimension. This term refers to the degree to which people see

themselves or their collective group as more important (Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Moreover, Westwood and Kirkbride (1998) describe collectivism as

> the significant point of reference for (Chinese) people is the collectivity rather than the individual self and the interests of the collective supersede those of the individual. A sense of identity is achieved via membership of and reference to the group rather than self-reference' (p. 567).

CHC has been influencing Asian countries, such as China, Vietnam, Singapore, Korea, Japan and Taiwan, which have been shown to share characteristics of a collectivist society.

Phuong-Mai *et al.* (2005) also discuss the idea of collectivism alongside Hofstede and Hofstede's writing. They state that in CHC the family is the first social environment where children grow up and think of themselves as a member of a group. They agree that this collectivist mentality strongly supports cooperation in such a way that CHC's workers best perform in groups. In collectivist cultures, good relationships and interpersonal and organisational harmony are pre-eminent considerations. In other words, relationships are valued over tasks. Relationships are underpinned by The Confucian Doctrine of the Moderation (Chung Yung), which pushes the individual to adapt to the collective, to control personal emotions, and to avoid confusion, competition, and conflict (Hsu, 1949, cited in Walker & Dimmock, 2000). This doctrine is associated with the primary moral precept of harmony, which is viewed as a fundamental outgrowth of collectivism (Westwood & Kirkbride, 1998). The maintenance of harmonious relationships within the collective is the basis of interaction, and people must reduce individual desires and interests for the sake of harmony.

Further, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) identify that a diploma is very important in collectivist societies. They argue that a diploma is an honour not so much associated with the mastering of a subject but more with the gaining of social acceptance. Phuong-Mai *et al.* (2005) explain that is "why in CHC countries the temptation is much stronger to obtain diplomas in some irregular way, by bribery or on the black market" (p. 416). According to them, schools are under pressure from severe competition, and they are struggling with state plans and goals such as the number of graduates in CHC countries. Thus more effort and attention is devoted to the quantity rather than the quality of education as a whole. Also, they mention a case in which a teacher who organised his class along the lines of "group learning" received complaints from neighbouring classes about the noise caused by his students. (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005)

2.2.3 Socio-Political Transformation in Taiwan

In Taiwan, the socio-political transition shows a move forwards from authoritarianism to the democratisation and Taiwanisation (a.k.a. the Taiwanese localisation movement) of the polity. Taiwan is gradually moving towards political autonomy (or democracy). There has been a deliberate and strategic, attempt to develop a new nation, to be an independent country and to obtain international support for its new national identity. Until the mid-1980s, the KMT had dominated Taiwan by "mainlandising" and suppressing Taiwan with a view to reinforcing the legitimacy of its leadership in a "temporary" place (Law, 2002). The KMT promoted the idea of developing Taiwan as a temporary bastion to retrieve the mainland from the PRC authority. In 1949, the KMT enacted the Authoritarian Emergency Decree, which was intended to suspend the constitutional rights and freedom of people while tightly controlling the country. This was done to minimize various threats to the leadership of the KMT. The government controlled and dominated 'elections' at various levels (see the results of pre-1987 elections in Wu & Chen, 1989; cited by Law 2002). Mass media and immigration were not permitted.

Since the late 1980s, Taiwan has significantly opened up the polity and society. The KMT tolerated the establishment of the DPP in 1986 and abolished the Authoritarian Emergency Decree in 1987. It implemented unprecedented direct elections all over the country. Such an effort in democratisation finally brought forth the peaceful transfer of power from the KMT to the DPP in 2000, although the KMT once again became the ruling party in 2008. In other words, Taiwan has established a fair level of democracy, as espoused by Huntington (1991). Law (ibid) claims that two major sets of interrelated factors are recognised to account for the political success of Taiwan. One set comprises socio-economic conditions contributing to the development of democracy (such as successful economic development, the rise of the middle class, and the increased literacy and education levels of people, particularly a Western-trained bureaucratic elite). The other set of factors is socio-political, involving the redistribution of power between the state and society (for instance neighbours, whose newly emerged democratic systems are unstable and in crisis). Those factors bring about democratisation in peaceful transition without bloodshed or revolution in Taiwan. The transition could be divided into three different stages: the transformation from authoritarianism to democracy in the first direct presidential election in 1996, the transfer of power from the KMT to the DPP in the second

direct presidential election in 2000, and the KMT running the government after the direct presidential election in 2008.

Besides the peaceful transfer of power, four foundations are identified to make the policy and society of Taiwan different to the PRC (Law, 2002: 64-65):

> The electoral system and a multi-partisan polity: for example the KMT, DPP and the People's First Party,
>
> Both the press and electronic mass media began to blossom. These provide platforms for different social organisations or individuals to discuss and debate social or political issues, and have become a major force in monitoring the performance of the government.
>
> Numerous civil organisations have emerged to exert pressure on the government and political parties, and to shrink the government's corporatist structure.
>
> The rule of people is replaced with the rule of law. Law is no longer a repressive instrument of the ruling party or the government, but a means to protect people.

It is generally known that DPP's party members are mostly Taiwanese, especially Hoklo. The Party focused more on the policy of localisation than globalisation, and attempted to eliminate the effects of traditional culture from China and reconstruct a new concept of localised culture. Since 2000, when the DPP became the ruling party, the ideology of Taiwanisation pervaded the whole country simultaneously. Consequently, numerous notions, which were not questioned in traditional Taiwanese culture, began to be critiqued, e.g. teacher status in Taiwanese society.

2.2.4 Deconstruction and Reconstruction

The notion of "new Taiwanese" (新台灣人) was proposed by President Li in 1998. It means sharing "national identity" for those living in Taiwan who are willing to strive for the ROC regardless of their provincial heritage or native tongue and when they themselves or their ancestors arrived in Taiwan (Li, 1999). Popular acceptance of the idea of a "new Taiwanese consciousness" as part of "national" identity is reported to be growing (Lin, 2000). Two dimensions can be described at the international level: the relationship with the PRC and the international relationship. The idea of "two separate states of a divided nation" has been promoted by the Taiwanese government to resolve the relationship between Taiwan and the PRC. In the early 1990s Taiwan began to use the 'ROC on Taiwan' as the regional name to apply for membership in the United Nations and the other

international organisations, such as "the areas of Taiwan, Penghu, Kinmen and Matsu" to apply for entry into the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 1991, and to be a member in 2002. All these actions signify that Taiwan has given up its claim to 'represent the whole China' (the Taiwanese government has always claimed that they represent all of China since 1949) on the one hand, and has recognised the legitimacy of the Chinese Communist Party's leadership on the Chinese Mainland on the other hand.

In recent times, under the movement of political reform, Taiwanese society is perplexed by the complicated socio-political issues not only with regard to its national identity, but also to numerous Reconstructions of ethics and values. Taiwanese society has been suffering from the process of "growing tensions between the global, the national and the local..."(Crossley, 2002: 83) Issues of ethics and values, which were seldom doubted or questioned in traditional Taiwanese culture, are now deconstructed, and their meaning and adaptability in contemporary society is reassessed through public discourses. Crossley suggests:

> Discourses that can help improve our conceptualisation of globalisation processes while engaging with the diverse challenges made by post-modern critiques of meta-narratives have the potential to go beyond the limitations of deconstruction, and to contribute to advances that may be both affirmative and more effectively tuned to the cultural differences and multipolar geopolitics of the 21st century. (ibid: 257)

The teacher's status in society could be a good example. The concept of "evaluation" was introduced from America some decades ago, and it has been utilised in numerous fields as a mechanism to monitor the quality of an organisation. With the growth of science and philosophy, division of knowledge is becoming more specialised and elaborated. Since the content of teachers' teaching, i.e. curriculum, can be changed, the role of the teacher (which represents Heaven and Earth) is also changeable. Although people realise that a teacher's role is very important for children's development, they believe that the teacher's reputation should be based on his/her professionalism (which can be assessed), rather than blindly accepting the concept of "the respected teacher". Hence, the social discourse deconstructs the traditional teacher's status through evaluation, and then confirms his/her competence through the same process by re-conceptualising his/her reputation.

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2.3 Education in Taiwan

2.3.1 Taiwan's Educational System

According to the MoE (http://english.moe.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=4133&CtNode=2003&mp=1), the educational system in Taiwan is divided as: Compulsory Education, Senior High and Senior Vocational Education, Junior College Education, Normal Education and Training Programmes, University Education and Graduate Education.

Like many other countries, Taiwan's educational system begins with 1 - 2 years of pre-school education and nine years of compulsory education, including 6 years of elementary education and 3 years of junior high school education.

After finishing compulsory education, students take national examinations to receive senior secondary education, which includes 3 years of senior high school, 3 years of vocational high school, or 5 years of junior college.

To receive tertiary education, students have to take the Joint College Entrance Examination or other national examinations. They can take exams required to enter graduate school, 4 - 7 years of college or university, 1 - 4 years of a graduate school programme, and 2 - 7 years of a doctoral degree programme.

2.3.2 Brief History of Teacher Education in Taiwan

Taiwan was ceded to Japan as a condition of the Treaty of Shimonoseki which caused China (Qing Dynasty) to be defeated by the Japanese military invasion in 1895. Under the Imperial control and the nationalistic ruling race, the Japanese Government-General of Formosa deemed education as the most effective and surest way to bring about patriotism (Department of Educational Affairs of Government-General of Formosa 1916: 4; cited by Yang 2001). To meet the demands of the so called "education with national characteristics", the Office for the Department of Educational Affairs was constituted in 1895. The Japanese language was the only official language for communication in Taiwan for promoting Imperial colonial education. Taiwanese people were encouraged to change their names from Chinese into Japanese.

After the restitution of Taiwan to China in 1945, the urgent task of the Taiwanese authority was to eliminate the effects of Japanese colonialism on Taiwan and to organise a new national identity. In the National Meeting of Post-War Education held in September

1945, "Partriotisation" (祖國化) was proposed as the main educational policy for the government of Taiwan. Under such a policy, "education for nationalism" and "Chinese culture education" were specifically emphasised and persistently launched. Towards the cultivation of the unified Chinese consciousness, strict strategies for unification of national language were adopted. The education policies included the unified official school textbooks and prohibited the use of Taiwanese dialects in schools. Further, "Phonetics of Chinese Language" (國音學) and "Four Books" (Four Chinese Ancient Classics, 四書) were prerequisite courses in the teacher education curriculum, in order to train competent teachers for the unified national language and national culture.

Paradoxically, Taiwanese educational policy making had been coherently designed from nationalism (based on the Chinese culture, especially CHC) to economic rationalism (based on Western capitalist efficiency since 1949). To form a rigid spiritual national defence force is an urgent need resulting from the significant danger of "military invasion" and "internal subversion" from Communist China. Teacher education was recognised to be extremely important; therefore teacher training institutions were entirely established by the government specifically for this purpose, and excluded public institutions, such as general university. Cultural nationalism – with a strong Chinese orientation – was valued in education during this time.

In contrast, the developing industry, foreign trade, and Western capitalist efficiency were also urgently needed in Taiwan to survive in the highly competitive global environment. From the 1960s, competency-based education was introduced from America, but it has also been emphasised in teacher education policy. The reason for this is to promote economic development through effective educational implementation.

Since the 1980s, industries in modern technology have been developing rapidly. The confidence of the government was established in the last decades caused by the quick economic growth and political stability. Martial law was no longer necessary to maintain national security, so it was abolished on 15th July 1987. In addition, the Council on Education Reform which was formed at the cabinet level started to examine educational systems in Taiwan to collect and integrate people's views in policy-making.

In January 1994, the University Law was revised. Lee Yuan-Zhe (李遠哲), the president of Academia Sincia, stated that "universities and colleges are now able to diversify their curricula to include teacher training" (Vuylesteke, 1997: 28). However, the

teacher education system was thought to be too rigid in relation to democratisation, pluralism and liberalisation that have been sought in every socio-cultural sphere. To meet the demands for "pluralising teacher education", the Teachers' Preparation Law (a.k.a. the Teacher Education Law or the Teacher Training Law) was revised on 7th February 1994. Flexibility in teacher training programs was called for. The revised Teachers' Preparation Law declares that only students who graduated from either the teacher colleges or MoE-approved universities and college programmes are eligible to teach at primary schools. Nowadays, more teachers in primary and secondary schools hold diplomas from different universities and institutes. Reform in education has been crying out to meet the demands of the changing social reality.

2.3.3 Recent Education Reform

Since this period of reflection on Taiwan's political environment and its increasing effort towards democratic openness, the education system has also been deconstructed and deregulated. It has shifted its attention from an emphasis on paternity, professionalism, and nationalism to raising concerns for minorities, localisation, and multiple values in the 1980s. Education reform has become a much more enormous social, political and moral concern, in such an age of technological, economical and socio-cultural changes, bringing challenges to the operation of education. Parents, teachers, and the young students themselves have complained about the rigid system of public schooling. Consequently, a group of teachers and supporters established an April Tenth Education Reformers' League to push the government to hasten educational reform. Hu (1995) described the movement:

> On April 10, 1994, more than twenty thousand people turned up for Taiwan's first large-scale march for education reform. Since then, a group of teachers and supporters have formed an April Tenth Education Reformers' League to press the government to speed up education reform by reducing the number of student in each class and the number of students per school, establishing more high schools and colleges, modernizing the education system, and creating a basic law governing education. (p. 336)

The aforementioned march was named the 410 March by Taiwan's mass media. This March accelerated education reform in Taiwan. Four proposals were made in this movement, namely 1) reduction of the number of pupils in primary and secondary schools, 2) the widening of educational access, 3) the reform of the curriculum to meet the needs of internationalisation, and 4) the development of a comprehensive Foundation Law of Education.

Responding to the demands of the 410 March, the Premier of Executive Yuan, Lien Can formed an ad hoc cabinet-level blue-ribbon Council – a Commission on Educational Reform (CER 教育改革審議委員會) on 21st September 1994. The thirty-one Council Members, under the chairmanship of Professor Lee Yuan-Zhe (李遠哲), Nobel Laureate in Chemistry, were assigned the task of studying the feasible strategies for restructuring the educational system to meet the new demands of the coming century. After a two-year study, the Council published the General Consultation Report for Education Reform (教育改革總諮議報告書) on 2nd December 1996 (Council on Education Reform, 1996). To implement the reform proposals, the Executive Yuan instituted a cross-ministries Commission for Promoting Education Reform (教育改革推動委員會) in January 1997, under the coordination of former Vice-premier Liu Chao-Hsuan (劉兆玄).

The former President Chen Shui-Bian reaffirmed the determination of the New Government to launch an overall education reform in the Republic of China on Taiwan. This wave of education reform brought a vast rebound and complaints. Hundreds of scholars and professors expressed their hope "to end the educational disorder, [and] to pursue high quality education" in September 2003. They bitterly pointed out 13 disorders in this wave of education reform and insisted that the government "re-examine its ten-year education reform". The chairman, Professor Lee Yuan-Zhe, apologised publicly in the Legislative Yuan, stating that students' stress is not reduced by the ten-year education reform. Although one cannot consider Professor Lee to be fully responsible for this wave of education reform, it is worth examining the different problems caused by the reform and the cost paid by Taiwanese society.

In response to the reform ideas, the central government and many local governments in Taiwan are still taking many initiatives and coordinating with one another to plan and promote reforms. Several laws, decrees and working guidelines have been enacted or revised as part of the overall educational innovation.

2.4 Summary

Taiwan is a melting pot of Eastern and Western influences. The confluence is not confined to Japan and China (although that is highly significant historically), but a truly cosmopolitan one. As a consequence, there is a dynamic and complex nexus of cultures in Taiwan. It was dominated not only by the Japanese system for a certain period, but also by the Chinese culture for a long time. More recently, the impacts of globalisation can be

observed, and the Taiwanese educational reform was influenced by the U.S. Hence, Taiwan can be described as a country of cultural hybridity (combining different characteristics of the cultures into a unit).

As an independent state, Taiwan is classified as a CHC Nation (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005; Phuong-Mai *et al.* 2005; Tu 1996; Walker & Dimmock 2000). Since some traditional concepts are currently challenged in Taiwan, it is worth rethinking the extent of CHC's impacts This issue is probed in my study, and I will give particular focus to whether teacher evaluation is inclined towards individualism (influenced by international economic competition through globalisation) or collectivism (influenced by CHC in traditional culture).

Chapter 3 The Nature of Teacher Evaluation

The aim of this chapter is to use current research to explore the nature of teacher evaluation in order to construct a background of information for examining the data gathered for my study.

This chapter is divided into six sections. First, "evaluation" is defined to holistically understand its nature and significance. These definitions serve as a basis for examining "teacher evaluation". Second, I provide an overview of teacher evaluation and discuss its purposes. The paradigms of study change with time, so the purpose of teacher evaluation is also adjusted accordingly. Such a shift is explored in Section 3. As teacher evaluation originated in the United States, this study explores the developing spectrum of teacher evaluation in the United States, within its historical context. Evaluation can be divided into summative and formative evaluations, both of which are discussed in terms of their relationship with teacher evaluation. Relevant Taiwanese research is included in the last section.

3.1 Definitions of Evaluation

The word "evaluation" is from the French "évaluation". Etymologically, it contains the stem "valu", the prefix "é" and the suffix "ate". The prefix "é" means "ex", i.e. "out". The suffix "ate" is a typical verb, whilst the stem "valu" stands for value. Therefore "evaluation" means to draw a value/judgment, implying that it is closely related to the concept of value.

Evaluation

There are various definitions of evaluation. Michael Scriven (1967, 1991) developed one of the earliest definitions that are still commonly used today:

> Evaluation refers to the process of determining the merit, worth, or value of something, or the product of that process. Terms used to refer to this process or part of it includes: appraise, analyze, assess, critique, examine, grade, inspect, judge, rate, rank review, study, test. . . . The evaluation process normally involves some identification of relevant standards of merit, worth, or value; some investigation of the performance of evaluands [evaluatees] on these standards; and some integration or synthesis of the results to achieve an overall evaluation or set of associated evaluations. (Scriven, 1991, p. 139)

Another definition, which stems from evaluation's long history with social programmes and takes on the perspective of social science, comes from Rossi, Lipsey, and Freeman (2004):

> Program evaluation is the use of social research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs. It draws on the techniques and concepts of social science disciplines and is intended to be useful for improving programs and informing social action aimed at ameliorating social problems. (p. 28)

A definition used by many evaluation practitioners is given by Patton (1997), whereby the use of evaluation findings is emphasised:

> Program evaluation is the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs to make judgments about the program, improve program effectiveness, and/or inform decisions about future programming. (p. 23)

Preskill and Torres (1999) offer a definition that focuses on evaluative activities specifically conducted within organizations for the purpose of organisational learning and change:

> We envision evaluative inquiry as an ongoing process for investigating and understanding critical organization issues. It is an approach to learning that is fully integrated with an organization's work practices, and as such, it engenders (a) organization members' interest and ability in exploring critical issues using evaluation logic, (b) organization members' involvement in evaluative processes, and (c) the personal and professional growth of individuals within the organization. (pp. 1–2)

To summarise the definitions above, evaluation can be viewed as a systematic process which involves collecting data regarding questions or issues about society (in general terms) and organisations and programmes (in specific terms), and judging the performance of evaluatees based on certain standards.

Evaluation in Education

What is evaluation in education? This study considered related literature (Tayler, 1949; Cronbach, 1963; Kerr, 1968; Bloom, 1970; Hamilton, 1976; Jenkins, 1976; Jenkins, 1976; Cronbach *et al.*, 1980; Patton, 1982; Nevo, 1986; Hopkins, 1989; Norris, 1990; Davies *et al.*, 2000), and came up with the following summary of how to describe evaluation:

Table 3-1: The Nature of Evaluation in Education

	Programme of Curriculum and instruction	*Educational programme*	*Assessment of merit*	*Improving programme*	*Judging decision*	*Social planning and control*
Tayler (1949: 105-6)	✓					
Cronbach (1963:672)		✓				
Kerr (1968: 21)	✓					
Bloom (1970:28)	✓					
Hamilton (1976:4)	✓					
Jenkins (1976: 6)					✓	
Cronbach et al. (1980: 14)				✓		
Patton (1982:15)				✓		
Nevo (1986: 16)			✓			
Hopkins (1989: 3)	✓					
Norris (1990: 16)						✓
Davies et al. (2000:253)						✓

From this related literature, research on evaluation in education seems to be more concerned with the collection and use of information to improve curriculum and instruction. According to the review above, education evaluation could, therefore, be identified as a system of "planning and control to monitor and enhance the development of education. The main focus is on the quality of education".

3.2 Teacher Evaluation

Consistent with the definition of personnel evaluation provided by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (1988), teacher evaluation is defined here as the "systematic assessment of a teacher's performance and/or qualifications in relation to the teacher's defined professional role and the school district's mission." (cited from Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995)

Various definitions of teacher evaluation have been provided over the past 60 years. While each definition takes a slightly different view, they share important meanings applicable to all. First, teacher evaluation (TE) is viewed as a systematic process. It should be a purposeful activity. Second, TE involves collecting data regarding questions or issues about teaching quality, classroom management, and teachers' professional knowledge. Third, it is a process for enhancing a teacher's professional development and the school's decision-making, whether the decisions are for improving or refining a school or its personnel, or for determining whether to dismiss teachers. In each of these decisions, there is some aspect of judgment about the merit, worth, or value of a teacher's performance. Finally, TE's uses are either implicit or explicit in most definitions. Ultimately, it is concerned with asking questions about issues that arise from everyday practice. It is a means for gaining a better understanding of what teachers do, and how their actions affect the education environment. A distinguishing characteristic of TE is that, unlike traditional forms of academic research, it is grounded in the everyday realities at school. TE systems can devise their criteria based on teaching, curriculum design, professional knowledge, professional development; devotion and attitude.

One of the purposes of schooling is for students to acquire new knowledge. The core issue for school leadership and management is to manage a high quality learning environment. Anything (including person, material, environment, or event) in the school can be evaluated in terms of its value and contribution to students' overall learning. Hence, evaluation can be described from the perspective of an administrator (refer to a head teacher or a director in school) as an act of gathering data to support a decision to accept, change, or eliminate something. From a teacher's perspective, it serves to identify strengths and vulnerabilities of a teacher's instruction and curriculum before implementation and the effectiveness of his/her delivery after implementation.

Stronge *et al.* (2007) identified instructional behaviour and practices of teachers that result in higher student learning gains. They justified that effective teachers scored higher across four domains, namely instruction, student assessment, classroom management, and personal qualities. Additionally, effective teachers tended to ask a greater number of higher-level (e.g., analytical) questions and had fewer incidences of off-task behaviour than ineffective teachers. Therefore they claim that the teacher is the key factor affecting student achievement. This viewpoint is coherent with those presented in previous studies (Brophy & Good, 1986; Good & Brophy, 1997; Rosenshine, 1983; West, 1990). As a

commitment to educational excellence, the purpose of teacher evaluation is to promote professional growth and development. This in turn has a positive impact on student success by improving and enhancing the educational process.

Without effective teacher evaluation systems, it is difficult for us to know if we have excellent teachers. Thus, a well-designed and properly implemented teacher evaluation system is essential in the delivery of effective educational programmes and school improvement.

3.3. The Purpose of Teacher Evaluation

The British Government has been implementing TE for 19 years. The Department of Education and Science (DES) formulated the purpose of TE as "an integral part of the management and support of teachers and must not be treated as an isolated exercise" (1989: 4). The government revised the purpose of performance management such that "schools and local authorities have an opportunity to ensure that all teachers and head teachers are empowered and confident to engage fully with performance management to develop their skills and careers" (cited from http://www.tda.gov.uk/teachers/performance_management.aspx). The concept of evaluation is defined widely by the transformation from manageralism (idea of "control" and "management") to professionalism (idea of skill and career development for teachers).

Some researchers tend to adopt manageralism to define TE. For example, Natriello (1990) thinks that the process of TE may be intentionally used by the school manager (e.g. head teacher) to: 1) influence the performance of individuals who will remain in their current positions, 2) guide decisions about the movement of individuals into and out of positions, and 3) legitimate the control attempts of the school organization. Chelimsky (1994) states that evaluation's "fundamental purpose" involves "helping to make the government more effective, more responsive, more accountable, and even, better managed" (344). Scriven (1994) and Stufflebeam (1994) believe that evaluation is undertaken to determine an object's value, in order to invoke defensible criteria for establishing its worth, merit or quality. Meanwhile Stufflebeam (1994) warns against mixing up the roles of evaluation with its goals.

However, Lincoln cautions that evaluators "cannot fail again to be involved with the marking of tough policy choice, with the just distribution of social goods and services" (1994: 308). From the view of professional development, Danielson and McGreal (2000: 8)

stated the purposes of teacher evaluation not only for screening out unqualified and providing feedback, but also for staff professional development.

Reichardt (1994) and Shadish (1994) agree that TE helps to establish merit or worth. However, it does more; for instance, it is important for evaluators to make recommendations for improving teachers. Shadish (1994) provides a new definition for evaluation: to "use feasible practices to construct knowledge of the value of the evaluand [evaluatee] that can be used to ameliorate the problems to which the evaluand [evaluatee] is relevant" (p. 352). Chen (1994) and Sechrest (1994) agree that the focus of evaluation has changed from assessing the outcome or impact of the implementation process. Sechrest (ibid) suggests it came about for two reasons: 1) the requirement and outcome of the measuring programme are too difficult to demand a great deal of rigour, and 2) researchers did not create adequate research designs, instead assuming the difficult tasks of developing better measures.

Nolan and Hoover's study (2008) leans towards professionalism. They believe that the purpose of TE is "to make judgments concerning the overall quality of the teacher performance and teacher's competence in carrying out assigned duties as well as to provide a picture of the quality of teaching performance across the professional staff" (p. 7).

The shift of paradigm has widened the range of TE's purposes, and has also influenced the practice of education. For instance, New Mexico's Public Education Department (2005) designs a guideline for its TE. The guideline describes seven purposes of evaluation (ibid: 6), including both *improvement* and *accountability*.

3.4 The History of Teacher Evaluation in the USA

Numerous studies (Hoskins, 1987; Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995; Danielson & McGreal 2000; Peterson, 2000; Stronge & Tucker, 2003; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007) describe the history of TE (including personnel evaluation) in a variety of ways. However, all of them focused on the U.S. because the development of evaluation started there. Hence, it is reasonable to illustrate its history within the American context.

The evaluation of certified teachers has undergone numerous changes over the last 80 years. Hoskins (1987) suggested that the process of TE is multi-faceted and affected by several complex and constantly changing variables. The evaluation of certificated teachers is a part of the continually evolving dynamics of the entire educational system. Numerous factors still enter into the equation concerning the way teachers teach and the way teaching

is evaluated. Hoskins also found teachers did not have a strong preference for peer review, unscheduled observations, or evaluations from a person outside the educational community. Subsequently, as preparation programmes for educators continue to emphasise reflective, dialogue-oriented work and collaborative efforts, it is time to revisit the teacher evaluation process. This section of the literature review will examine historical aspects of teacher evaluation along with national and state perspectives of Performance-Based Teacher Evaluation.

In Stufflebeam and Shinkfield's (2007) historical analysis, educational evaluation is divided into five major periods: 1) the Pre-Tylerian Period (before 1930); 2) the Tylerian Age (1930 – 1945); 3) the Age of Innocence (1946 – 1957); 4) the Age of Realism (1958 – 1972); and 5) the Age of Professionalism, from (1973 – the present day) (p. 32). Following this context and by looking at the history of TE, Stronge and Tucker (2003) further described that the tradition of TE dates back to the colonial period in the U.S., when citizen groups periodically toured the schools to hear recitations by students and ensured that teachers properly managed their classroom. In the 1800s, administrative positions became more common, and the responsibility for evaluation was assumed by master teachers (full-time administrators within the school). However, it was typically informal in nature and had no written procedures. By 1925, "various kinds of teacher efficiency ratings" (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995: 13) were being used by a majority of the school systems in the larger city.

In the 1940s and 1950s, Danielson and McGreal (2000) stated that "educators and researchers emphasized what are often called presage variables" (p. 13). Presage variables took the form of traits that teachers naturally possessed, such as voice, appearance, emotional stability, warmth, trustworthiness, and enthusiasm. Educators of this era believed that teachers who possessed these traits were more likely to perform effectively, so they became the centerpiece items in the local teacher evaluation criteria. There is no real evidence available to link presage variables to good teaching or student learning (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

Prior to the 1970s, the focus of TE was primarily summative in nature. Principals made their judgment about teachers' performance and recommended retention or dismissal with little or no feedback to teachers for improving their practice (Stronge and Tucker, 2003). During the 1960s and increasingly in the 1970s, TE attained growing importance (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995). A torrent of energy centred on research in the field of

teaching and prompted a dramatic shift in the focus of teacher evaluation. This time period coincided with significant advances in evaluation skills and classroom observation techniques. Researchers were developing clinical evaluation processes as a way of enhancing instruction, and others were designing observation and ratings instruments that allowed more accurate depiction of what was occurring in classrooms (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). This was partly attributed to public demand for accountability in education.

According to Peterson (2000), 70 years of research on principal ratings of teachers show that administrator ratings do not work well. Several studies on these types of evaluation models have been conducted (Ebmeier, 2003; Holland & Adams, 2002; Marshall, 2005). These studies depict principals as inaccurate raters, both of individual teacher performance behaviour and of overall teachers' merit. In addition, studies shows that these current evaluations do not serve teaching improvement function and have little or no effect on actual teaching practice.

Much of the current prescriptiveness was a result of public attention and legislation during the 1970s and 1980s (Fuhrman, 1994). Beginning in the 1970s, with the push for accountability, the general public demanded more rigorous performance assessments of school programmes and personnel to demonstrate educational effectiveness (Armiger, 1981; Duke, 1990; Harris, 1981; McNeil, 1981). During the 1980s there was growing acceptance of school and teacher accountability. For all its faults and potential imperfections, TE was seen as part of the educational process (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 1995). The pressure to improve the quality of teaching was heightened by reports such as A Nation at Risk and many state legislatures mandated evaluation not only of teachers but also of all certificated employees. Subsequently, evaluation became the primary tool of accountability in schools (Stronge & Tucker, 1995). This expansion of the "'state role in defining and developing evaluation systems for teachers" (Sclan, 1994: 2) resulted in the implementation of teacher evaluation systems by most states. The development of state and local evaluation practices was often driven by "evaluation criteria generated from lists of behaviours taken from the effects research or derived from Hunter's seven steps in lesion design" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000: 14).

Until recently, however, other members of the school community have not received this same level of interest and scrutiny by both the school systems and the professional literature (Stronge & Tucker, 1995). While TE continues to be a topic of intense research

and discussion, with more than 3,500 ERIC publications indexed under this descriptor during the past ten years, counsellors, library/media specialists, school nurses, and other support personnel have received minimal attention. In school systems, the actual implementation of state legislative mandates for the evaluation of professional support personnel (non-instructional, non-administrative professionals) often meant being evaluated using either informal or inappropriate criteria extrapolated from those used for teachers (Stronge & Tucker, 1995).

Since the publication of What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future) in 1996, the concept of teacher quality has been propelled to the forefront of the policy agenda. All educators–practitioners and policy-makers recognise what discerning parents have always known: the quality of individual teachers matters (Danielson, 2001). Therefore, the current educational context for TE is one which: 1) meets the public's demands for greater accountability, and 2) improves the teaching profession.

The formal teacher evaluation has been developing for over 80 years in the U.S., according to Stufflebeam and Shinkfield's (2007) claim. The purpose of teacher evaluation shift from rating teacher efficiency (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1995) to demand both accountability and improvement (Danielson, 2001). However, accountability and improvement respectively belong to different approaches. The differences could be explained by the discussion of "summative/formative evaluation" in the next section.

3.5 Formative and Summative Evaluations

Attempts to define evaluation point to a number of different dimensions by which it can be characterised.

A useful description of these has been developed by Stake (1986), who identified eight different possible dimensions of evaluation studies. They are: formative–summative, formal–informal, case particular–generalisation, descriptive–judgmental, preordinate–responsive, holistic–analysis, and internal–external (cited from Bennett, 2003: 9). Much discussion of evaluation focuses on the differences first described by Scriven (1967) between 'formative' and 'summative' approaches.

The Department for Education and Skills (2005) states that

> evaluation focused on the impact of the project on outcomes is called summative evaluation...Formative evaluation can be used to determine why, how or under

> what conditions a policy can be best directed or implemented, in order to shape its future direction (p. 13).

Summative evaluation should consider additional impacts at all times. For example, summative evaluation considers whether a policy (such as Specialist Schools) has an additional impact on pupils' attainment and attendance. The magnitude of any such effect will be quantified. In contrast, formative evaluation may consider, for example, whether and why the collaboration element of Specialist Schools was pivotal in instances where Specialist Schools were successful in raising attainment, or the type of school in which collaboration exerts its greatest effect. Summative and formative evaluations should be complementary. However, as a minimum requirement, "all evaluations should include a summative assessment of the overall additional impact of the policy on outcomes" (ibid: 14).

Formative evaluation is carried out to 'provide people who are trying to improve an intervention or service with feedback, while the principal aim of summative evaluation is to determine a programmer's overall impact or effectiveness' (Clarke, 2002). A study which is primarily seeking to gather information on the effectiveness of a programme after it has been implemented is termed summative evaluation. A summative evaluation seeks answers to questions about the relationships between the goals of the programme and its outcome. A formative evaluation seeks answers to questions about the process of implementation and how this relates to the achieved curriculum. While formative evaluation may commonly be concerned with process, it is not the only focus. Similarly, summative evaluations may embrace considerations of both the process and the outcome.

Table 3-2: Formative and Summative Evaluations.

	Formative	*Summative*
Target audience	*Programme managers, Practitioners*	*Policy makers, funder*
Focus of data collection	*Clarification of goal identifying outcome*	*Implementation issues outcome measures*
Role of evaluator	*Interactive*	*Independent*
Methodology	*Quantitative and qualitative (but with the emphasis on qualitative)*	*Emphasis on quantitative*
Frequency of data collection	*Continuous monitoring*	*Limited*
Reporting	*Informal via discussion*	*Formal*
Frequency of reporting	*Throughout study*	*On completion of evaluation*

Source: Herman and others, 1987 (reprinted in Newburn, 2001: 8)

The two natures of TE, accountability and professional growth, are frequently described as being incompatible, "often resulting in a focus on one purpose to the virtual exclusion of the other" (Stronge, 1995). For TE systems to be productive, this imbalance must be remedied. The purpose of a teacher evaluation system might include licensing/credentialing, tenure, self-assessment, and professional development (Harlen & James, 1997; Stronge, 1997). These specific purposes refer to two more general functions of the system: "accountability" and "improvement". Accountability, typically summative in nature, reflects the need to determine the competence of teachers to ensure that services delivered are effective. Improvement, typically formative in nature (Beerens, 2000), reflects the need for professional growth and development of the individual teacher. The dual character of TE, as described above, is practically unachieveable with a single evaluation system, since determining the purposes of evaluation has an influence on the design of evaluation instruments, their administration, and the interpretation of results (Black & William, 1998; Harlen & James, 1997). However, a comprehensive system should be rooted in two broad purposes: outcome and improvement (McGreal, 1988). It is imperative that different mechanisms for formative and summative TE be established. If these features are used as guidelines for determining the objectives of TE, we can formulate educational policies concerning the development of the criteria for evaluation, in addition to identifying sources for collecting the relevant data.

My study integrates the literature above and identifies two basic types of evaluation, namely formative evaluation and summative evaluation. The former is concerned with

professional development and the improvement of practice by identifying strengths, weaknesses, needs and interests. In contrast, the latter is concerned with the selection, promotion, redeployment and dismissal of teachers. In England, TE is more like a formative appraisal, emphasising the promotion of professional development. In Taiwan, the traditional teacher evaluation serves to assess achievement and may, therefore, be defined as summative evaluation.

3.6 Relevant Research in Taiwan

Many scholars have also explored the nature of TE in Taiwan. According to Tenbrink (1974), Worthern and Sander (1987), Ou-Yang and Chang (1993) defined TE as a process of making value judgment and decisions. This process collects all the relevant information with regard to the indicators of teachers' performance to understand its defects and merits. The purpose is to help teachers improve their teaching, besides serving as a basis for determining rewards and disciplines.

Wu (1999) addressed TE based on systemic explorations of Ou-Yang and Chang (1993), Bolton (1973), McGreal (1983), Valentinr (1992), Green (1971), Stake (1989), Natriello (1990), Tenopyr & Oeltjen (1982), Loup, Garland Ellett & Rugutt (1996), Bollington, Holpkins & West (1990), Craft (1996), Valentine (1992), and Turner and Clift (1988). He described TE as a kind of continuous, systematised process used to understand teachers' performance at school, in addition to assisting them in the area of professional development. This process is a part of teachers' personal development and school administration.

After examining Ou-Yang and Chang (1993), Wu (1999), and Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease (1983), Wu and Chang (2002) declared, that TE is carried out to assess teaching quality. Suitable indicators and procedures are constituted for the evaluator to observe, examine, interview, and assess a teacher's style, ability, and performance. This can in turn help to improve the teaching quality, encourage professional development and determine the proper personnel.

Sun (2004) examined various studies, including Danielson (1996), Danielson and McGreal (2000), Pan (2004), and Chang (2004). In Sun's research, TE is seen as a part of school development and management. The evaluator describes and judges a teacher's performance based on relevant data in order to improve the teaching quality, promote

professional development, or determine the bases of a teacher's employment, and decide on rewards and disciplines for the educational administrator.

By summarising the studies of Chang (1992), Fu (1998), Lo (1999), Wu and Lin (2002), Lee (2006), it is found that TE can be achieved through the cooperation between the teacher and the administrative leader in a school. It can prove to be a very useful measure of a teacher's performance if it is carried out via a set of continuous and systematic procedures by means of: 1) observation, 2) interview, 3) survey, 4) examination, 5) collection of the relevant material for evaluation, 6) self-criticism and 7) analysis of a teacher's performance (including their needs and potential in order to encourage professional development). TE can improve teaching, promote students' educational quality, and assist in teacher employment and the determination of promotion and wage.

The general impression of TE is that it is an assessment of the efficiency and performance of teachers. In fact, on top of that, it can also monitor the quality of teaching. TE has the empowerment function, meaning that it is able to help promote a teacher's professionalism. Synthesising the scholars' views above and my opinions derived from the exploration of related research, the nature of TE can be summed up as having the dual function of "rewards and disciplines" (or personnel decisions) and "professional development". Subsequent studies (Yu, 2000; Chen, 2003; Yen, 2003; Huang & Xue, 2004; Chen, 2004; Tzai, 2004) have followed in the footsteps of the aforementioned studies in their definitions and purpose of TE. Its characteristics include "a dual basic function" (as stated above), "continuous and systematised process of judgment and decision-making about teachers' performance" and "is a part of a school's management and development".

To summarise, the purposes of TE in Taiwan are to: 1) define the criteria for objectively measuring professionalism, 2) adopt a pluralistic way through the collection of diverse materials, going through certain procedures, and making judgments to ensure the teaching quality, improve professional performance, and bring forth a positive effect on students' learning.

3.7 Summary

When I discuss the international research on TE, one interesting phenomenon was found: most published studies are American. This can reasonably explain that the solution of educational problems in Taiwan overly relies on American research.

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Numerous studies describe the purpose of evaluation in education tending to focus the programme on teacher's curriculum and instruction (see Table 3-1). It illustrates that teacher's performance is the core of evaluation in education. Although research showed the purpose of TE in a variety of ways, they can be briefly categorised into two dimensions, i.e. accountability and improvement. The two specific purposes refer to different types of evaluation. Accountability reflects the need to determine the teacher's performance which refers to summative evaluation. Improvement reflects the need for teacher's professional development which refers to formative evaluation. From the historical development of TE in America, the purpose of teacher evaluation shifts from rating teacher efficiency to demand both accountability and improvement. Therefore, TE can be defined as a certain mechanism which improves teacher's performance in order to maintain the quality of school education.

Some Taiwanese studies (Chang, 1992; Fu, 1998; Lo, 1999; Wu & Lin, 2002; Lee, 2006) suggest a set of continuous and systematic procedures of TE, including observation, interview, survey, examination, collection of the relevant material for evaluation, self-criticism and analysis of a teacher's performance. The application of those procedures will be empirically examined by implementers of TEPD in my study. In Taiwan, the purposes of TE, from Taiwanese related literature, include 1) defining the criteria for objectively measuring professionalism as the process of a school's design, 2) adopting a pluralistic way through the collection of diverse materials, going through certain procedures, and making judgments to ensure the teaching quality, improving professional performance, and effecting a positive effect on students' learning. These purposes of TE were also judged to be valid by participants in this study

Chapter 4 Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodological approach of my study and outlines the research design. It explains the structure of this study and the process by which data were collected and analysed.

This chapter is divided into several sections: introduction to methodology (Section 4.1), research framework (Section 4.2), sampling process (Section 4.3), methods of data collection (Section 4.4), material (Section 4.5), methods of analysis (Section 4.6), procedures (Section 4.7), ethical issues (Section 4.8), issues of trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Section 4.9), and potential contribution (Section 4.10).

4.1 Introduction to Methodology

Crossley and Vulliamy emphasise the strengths of qualitative research as:

> ...the main strengths of qualitative research in education are its high ecological validity derived from research in natural settings, its appropriateness for the study of the processes of educational innovations, especially focusing on the unanticipated consequences of change... (Crossley & Vulliamy, 1996: 443)

In my study, I strive to explore the meaning of teacher evaluation (TE) in the Taiwanese context. By reviewing and critiquing various publications, I developed an understanding and interpretation of these texts to comprehend the influences of related factors. Further, my study explored implementers' perspectives and their interpretation of TE; therefore interviews and documentary analysis were adopted as qualitative methods of data collection.

According to Guba and Lincoln's view of research paradigms (1994), the hermeneutical methodology is adopted in the Constructivism paradigm. Based on Constructivism, all understanding is basically derived from the active involvement of the interpreter (researcher) with the data. The hermeneutic stance is used to provide an enhanced comprehension of the Taiwanese context in which the implementation of TE is found, and in which meaning is given to the system.

Gadamer (1970) explains that understanding is "... a basic structure of our experience of life... we cannot reduce it to anything simpler or more immediate" (cited from Schwandt 2000: 194). He points out that it is "a living force that enters into all understanding". Schwandt (2000) claims, in view of Gadamer, that "understanding is

participative, conversational, and dialogic". Therefore the work of hermeneutics "is ... to clarify the conditions in which understanding takes place", because the goal of philosophical hermeneutics is to understand what is involved in the process of understanding itself (Madison, 1991). Understanding is more like engaging in a dialogue, whilst meaning is produced by mutual negotiation in the act of interpretation; in other words, meaning is not simply discovered. Meanwhile, there is never a final correct interpretation, and meaning is not necessarily as constructed, but as negotiated (Schwandt 2000). Bernstein (1983) suggests that researchers should "always aim at a correct understanding of what the 'things themselves' say". He further explains that the "things themselves" may be different in the light of our changing horizons and the different questions we are learning to ask. Such understanding and interpretation "can be constructed as distortive only if we assume that a text possesses some meaning in itself that can be isolated from our prejudgments" (cited from Shwandt, 2000: 195).

However, understanding is bound up with certain language and is achieved through sets of logical questions and answers: it is produced through the "dialogue" between the interpreter and the data collected. In my study, I sought to make sense of the implementation and the meaning of TE in Taiwan through implementers' perspective and their interpretations.

All understanding in this study is basically derived from the active involvement of interpreters (implementers) with related data. In my study, interpreters are persons who are in the position to explain the implementation of TE. Understanding is thus derived from a fusion of different implementers' perspectives and the relevant contextual data. Schools are identified as the basic unit for implementing TE, and my main focus is directed towards primary schools. There are two different contexts, namely the external (outside the school) and the internal (within the school). The former can be further divided into three components: 1) the Taiwanese context (related material from previous experiments and current experiments performed by the MoE, and the influences of socio-cultural or historical factors), 2) the English context (i.e. the English experience of implementing), and 3) the international context (the effects of TE in the light of international research). Investigation of the internal context is also organised into three parts: 1) school culture and climate, 2) the policy and practice, and 3) goal effectiveness (professionalism and accountability). Subjects were directly/indirectly affected by the activity of the TE system, i.e. head teachers, teachers, and education officers of certain levels. My research is

structured by the aforementioned elements. One argument could be the lack of consistent perspectives drawn from experiences of TE. However, derivation of this incoherence is an inevitable limitation. Interaction between the context and interpreters could bring about a higher degree of comprehension. Therefore the meaning of "the Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan" is effected through the dialogue and interaction between implementers' perspectives and the context, also including myself.

In my study, data were provided and made sense of using hermeneutic techniques, i.e. creating the data via interviews, and doing transcriptions of the narrative records. A wider range of material relating to this context, including newspapers and press releases, other media reports from conferences and workshops, academic writings and other papers and reports (formal or informal), and digital audio files and digital video files is reviewed. Regarding data analysis, it is the analysis of texts in their historical, socio-cultural or socio-political context in Taiwan. This requires both the comprehension and presentation of the data's meaning and the capacity to remain true to their original context.

Some international research (Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Marzano, Pickering & Poloc, 2001; Nye *et al.*, 2004; Stronge *et al.*, 2008) on TE believes that a TE system should emphasise stakeholders' interests. In the context of my research, these interests include the following:

1. Parents' satisfaction should be embraced into the TE system, and they may even serve as members of the evaluation team (to illustrate the idea of democracy); and
2. Students' performances are deemed as part of the outcome in one of TE's indicators. .

Emphasis on the use of students' learning outcomes can be found in two main studies, Marzano, Pickering and Poloc (2001) and Sanders and Rivers (1996). The teacher efficacy researchers advocate that "teachers need feedback". Such feedback includes the process and results of teaching. They consider that the appropriate and numerous information feedback is necessary for the pursuit of efforts to improve things. However, I think that there are too many factors affecting the effectiveness of students' learning. While the information is readily available for teachers' reference, it will be inappropriate to include such factors in the criteria of TE. This is because it will increase the complexity and uncertainty of the TE. Moreover, the findings in the studies above demonstrate that an

effective teacher will produce good student performances, but they fail to show that "students' performance" does not necessarily reflect that the teacher is good.

I will cite an example from my school. The former head teacher made an attempt to understand parents' level of satisfaction towards teachers' teaching. He conducted a questionnaire survey to receive some feedback from parents and students regarding the teaching quality. The results of this study are interesting:

Those whose children were in lower grades (Grades 1-2) were generally more satisfied with the teachers, and this satisfaction was usually higher than that given for teachers teaching higher grade (Grades 5-6); and

Parents who often kept in touch with teachers were more aware of their classroom management skills, so they were more honest when reflecting on the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. In contrast, parents who had little contact with teachers demonstrated a high degree of satisfaction with the teacher's teaching, and the purpose was mainly a diplomatic one, i.e., to maintain a good relationship with these teachers.

I do not plan to argue about the design of this questionnaire, but rather, I would like to emphasise that Taiwanese culture is in the process of transforming and re-shaping itself, and topics of education have become a source of concern for many people, including parents. As discussed above, parents who were friendlier with teachers tended to be more frank and open, so their comments gave a more truthful reflection of the latter's abilities. In contrast, polite responses were more often a sign of indifference. I would therefore like to stress that the diversity of parents' voices may not be an accurate measure of teaching effectiveness.

The aforementioned justification prompted me to choose the interview method above the survey method. In addition, my interviewees were carefully selected to include people who were able to discuss the implementation of TE in Taiwan; in other words, they were implementers of the policy, including officers, head teachers and teachers (but not stakeholders).

4.2 Research Framework

In Section 4.1, I provided a brief discussion of interpreters and related data. Since this study aims to understand the complexities of implementing TE at the primary school level in Taiwan, the realm of this study is identified as the reality of TE, which might involve

implementers who have the capacity to interpret the reality of implementation, as discussed at the end of the previous section. As interpreters, these respondents explained their perceptions of the implementation of TE based on previous experiences. Their perceptions were affected by the Government's policy, the effects of socio-culture, socio-politics, history, considerations of internationalisation and so forth. By examining implementers' interpretations, it was possible to determine the meaning of TE particularly through formal and informal dialogues. Generally, my research framework can be represented as follows:

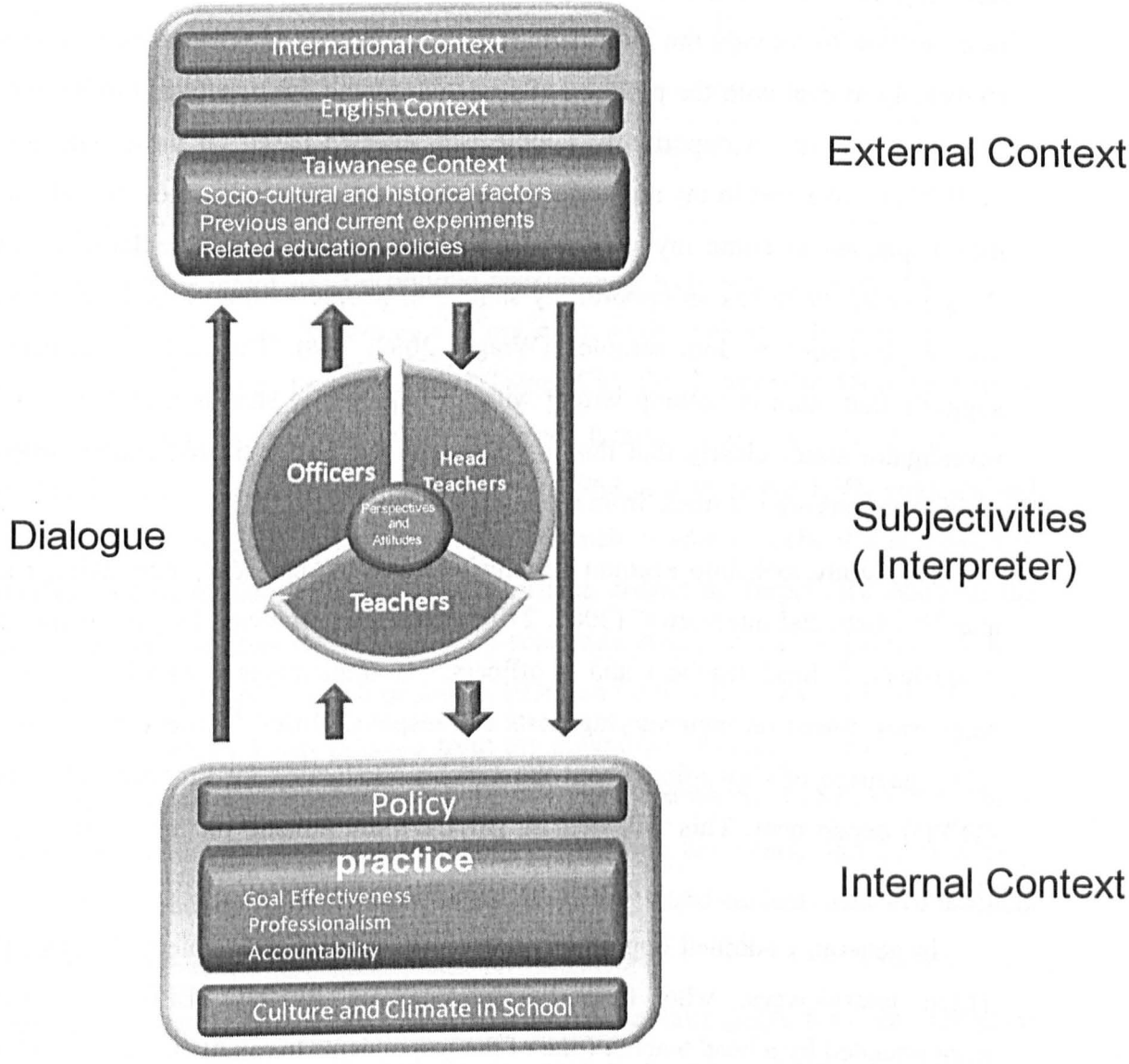

Figure 4-1: Research Framework

4.3 Sampling Process

In this study, I adopted a more qualitative approach by sampling primary schools in Taipei city. These schools' pupils have different socio-economic status, but the schools themselves have comparable student intakes. The samples of officers were drawn from

those occupying positions in both urban and suburban schools. The aim of selecting different schools was to draw diverse views from teachers with distinct characteristics. I also considered gender, experience and the position of my interviewees in their schools in my sampling process.

In general, I have used two methods of sampling: judgement sampling and opportunity sampling. The majority of my sample was gathered through judgement sampling as I wanted to involve subjects who are most advantageously placed or in the best position to provide the information required. Opportunity sampling was used in this study only to deal with the problem of people dropping out or refusing to be interviewed. To put it simply, an opportunity sample was selected based on those who were easily available to take part in my research, either because of their willingness to talk, or because they happened to come my way. Those who dropped out were replaced by others, as Wragg notes: "one has an opportunity sample of people willing to be interviewed, rather than a genuinely random sample" (Wragg, 2002: 146). The methodological literature suggests that there is nothing wrong with an opportunity sample provided that' "(a) the investigator states clearly that this is what it is, and (b) over-bold claims, inferences or generalizations are not made from the interview data" (ibid: 147).

This study took into account Ribbins's advice to "consider undertaking between 10 and 20 substantial interviews" (2007: 219). Hence, I interviewed 13 participants, including 7 teachers, 3 head teachers and 3 officers, i.e. implementers who belong to different categories. Based on their varying posts and responsibilities, I believe that there will be a wide spectrum of viewpoints about the Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development (TEPD) experiment. This will help to paint a more holistic picture of the experiment's complexity.

In general, I adopted opportunity sampling to select two subjects for my pilot study. These interviewees, who were deeply involved in the TEPD experiment, were recommended by a head teacher (one of the respondents in my main study). The remaining 11 subjects were chosen from those who participated in TEPD as educators. Both the data gathered from the pilot and main studies will be subjected to further discussion (the reason for including the pilot interviews will be explained in detail in Section 4.7).

The institutions and participants in this study are summarised in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1: Institutions and Participants in Taiwan

Main/Pilot Study	*Institution*	*Participant(s)*	*Total number of participants per institution*
Pilot study	*Primary school*	*1 head teacher, 1 teacher*	*2*
Main study	*(1) 2 primary schools*	*2 head teachers, 6 teachers*	*8*
	(2) Department of Education, Taipei City Government	*Officer*	*1*
	(3) The Taiwan National Teachers' Association	*Officer*	*1*
	(4) Taiwan's Ministry of Education	*Officer (Section Manager)*	*1*

Three schools with different socio-economic backgrounds were selected from Taipei city, of which only Schools 1 and 2 were part of my main study. School 1 is in an urban and modern community close to the building of Taipei City Government in Hsin-Yi district. Most students come from white-collar workers' families, i.e. they have an upper socio-economic status. School 1 was established in 1968, and there are 1,692 students and 163 teachers (including 23 male teachers and 113 female teachers). School 2 is located in the suburban and traditional community, in Wan-Hua district of Taipei city. Most of the students come from families with lower socio-economic status, and their parents work in traditional markets. School 2 was founded in 1936, and currently, there are 901 students and 109 teachers. School 3 was selected from the downtown business district through the recommendation of the head teacher from School 1. The head teacher in School 3 has been involved in the issue of teacher evaluation for more than ten years, and he is a very experienced head teacher (more than 20 years). There are 1,650 students and 116 teachers (including 87 female teachers and 29 male teachers).

Regarding the factor of the length of service, there are three stages for each individual teacher's career development in Taiwan. In my main study, the participants were drawn from various stages: I included at least one "Wei Ren" (委任, meaning Initial/Qualified Teacher), one "Jian Ren" (薦任, meaning Experienced/Core Teacher), and one "Jian Ren" teacher (簡任, meaning Advanced/Post-Threshold Teacher) from School 1 or School 2. Regarding the balance of gender and teaching work, three male teachers and three female

teachers were selected from Schools 1 and 2. Meanwhile, a consideration was made to select three class teachers (abbreviated as C in Table 4-2) and three subject teachers (abbreviated as S in Table 4-2) from both the aforementioned schools.

I gave a code to each sample, as can be seen below:

Table 4-2: Code of Samples

Institution	*Position*		*Gender*	*Code*
School 1	*Head teacher*		*M*	*TS1H*
	Teachers	*Wei Ren (QTS)*	*M (C)*	*TS1T1*
		Jian Ren (Core)	*F (S)*	*TS1T2*
		Jian Ren (Post Threshold)	*M (C)*	*TS1T3*
School 2	*Head teacher*		*M*	*TS2H*
	Teachers	*Wei Ren (QTS)*	*F (S)*	*TS2T1*
		Jian Ren (Core)	*F (C)*	*TS2T2*
		Jian Ren (Post Threshold)	*M (S)*	*TS2T3*
School 3	*Opportunity sample (pilot study)*	*Head teacher*		
		Jian Ren (Post Threshold)	*M*	*TS3H*
			F	*TS3T1*
Officer	*Officer at the state level*		*M*	*TOS*
	Officer at the local level		*M*	*TOL*
	Officer of the NUT		*M*	*TOT*

The three schools and all interviews quoted in my study will not be named (except by the use of pseudonyms) to protect their identity and maintain confidentiality.

4.4 Methods of Data Collection

It is accepted that a national educational policy is not an easy concept to explore. Filstead advocated the strengths of qualitative methods by stating that:

> ... research strategies such as participant observation, in-depth interviewing, total participation in the activity being investigated, field, fieldwork etc., ... allow the researcher to obtain firsthand knowledge about the empirical social world in questions. (cited from Crossley & Vulliamy, 1984: 194)

My study adopts two key methods of data collection, namely documentary analysis and interview, to explore perceptions of TE and its implementation in Taiwan. Documentary data was used to address the first, third and part of the second and sixth sections of my

research questions. The other research questions are answered by means of interviews. Their pairing is presented in Table 4-3:

Table 4-3: Pairing Table of Research Questions and Methods

Item	*Question*	*Documentary Analysis*	*Interview*
1	*What is the trend of TE in the international context?*	✓	
2	*To what extent does the international development of TE significantly influence the TE model in Taiwan?*	✓	✓
3	*How has TE been developed in the English context?*	✓	
4	*What is the nature and effectiveness of existing evaluation systems and those that are being trailed in Taiwan's primary schools*		✓
5	*What are the implementers' perspectives of the potential advantages and limitations of the evaluation of teacher professional development?*		✓
6	*What factors are likely to facilitate or hinder the implementation of statutory performance evaluation programmes at the primary school level in Taiwan, in the light of the English experience and the implementers' viewpoints?*	✓	✓
7	*What implications do the findings of this study have for issues of TE?*		✓

4.4.1 Document Collection

A variety of data were collected and used in my study, including official documentation and contextual data.

Official Documentation

The aim of this study is to investigate the implementation of TE in Taiwan in the light of international research (with specific reference to TE in England). When reviewing the literature on TE, it is inevitable that some documentation of the U.S. would be explored because the majority of the research on TE was carried out in America. However, the main data were drawn from the Taiwanese and English contexts. The collection process involved contacting various organisations and government bodies, for example, the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DfCSF) in England and the MoE in Taiwan, as well as utilising government websites such as the DfCSF (including DES, DfEE, DfEs, Ofsted and TDA) and MoE. Official documentations include Regulations and related Regulations and Acts. The primary documents are as follows:

In Taiwan, regulations that are directly related to TE are the Regulation of evaluation for teacher's achievement at schools of all levels in Taiwan (Taiwan, 1947), the Regulation of teacher's and staff's achievement in public school (MoE, 1971), and the Regulation of teacher achievement evaluation below public senior high school (MoE, 2006). The three regulations represent the historical development of TE in Taiwan. Various Regulations and Acts that are correlated with TE are the System of improving teaching quality in middle and primary schools in Taipei (Taipei City Government, 1999), the Draft of Pursuing the Implementation of Teaching Evaluation in Kaohsiung Primary School (Kaohsiung City Government, 1999), Regulation of Teacher Professional Evaluation below High School in Kaohsiung City (Kaohsiung City Government, 2002), the Experimental Method of Teacher Profession Evaluation below High School (MoE, 2004), Teacher Act (MoE, 2003), and Basic Education Law (MoE, 1999).

In England, regulations of TE have been undergoing two revisions, i.e. from the original version of School Teacher Appraisal (Circular 12/91) (1991b), to the Education (School Teacher Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2001, and the Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006. The three regulations are discussed in detail in this study. Numerous Regulations and Acts in England are justified as relevant material, i.e. Teaching Quality (DES, 1983), Better School (DES, 1985a), Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal (DES, 1985b), Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement (DfES, 2003), The Education Reform Act 1988 (DES, 1988), and Education Act 2002 (DfES, 2002). All the above Regulations and Acts are mentioned in this study to understand the legal principle behind TE in England.

Contextual Data

Two additional sources of data collection pertained to the contextual background of setting regulations. The first includes the collection of background information related to the national contexts of Taiwan – historic, economic and political – and information about TE, including its formulation and implementation (as discussed in Chapter 2), with more in-depth discussions in the later chapters. The second source of data is about primary school teachers' perception and reception of TE gathered from related British and Taiwanese newspapers, including the British Broadcasting Company, Guardian and Times Education Supplement in England, and the United Daily News (聯合報), China Times (中國時報), and Mandarin Daily News (國語日報) in Taiwan and several journals. The

United Daily News (聯合報) and the China Times (中國時報) have the highest sales in Taiwan. The Mandarin Daily News (國語日報) discusses educational topics in Taiwan, and it is subscribed to by almost every class in every primary school in Taiwan. Also, minutes of meetings (including official meetings and National Union of Teachers' and schools' meetings) were employed where relevant.

The online news of the British Broadcasting Company represents the official position, while the Guardian generally presents a leftist political spectrum (cited from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Guardian) and the Times Education Supplement is described as being right-wing. According to Belam's survey on the Google Reader of British newspapers, the Guardian is ranked as the most popular newspaper in the UK (ranking first and second), and the Times UK news is ranked the fifth (http://www.currybet.net/cbet_blog/2007/11/top_100_british_newspaper_feeds_in_google_reader.php). Considering the balance of political spectrum and the reliability (from the view of their popularity), these three newspapers were chosen.

Before Documentary Analysis

I consider a number of questions about the attitudes behind my documentary evidence according to Cortazzi's (2002) suggestions. Cortazzi mentions some important questions pertaining to documentations:

1) "What is the source, and who is the author?"
2) "What is the intended purpose, and how would different participants interpret this and what are the intended or unintended effects of its use?"
3) "What is the status, accuracy, credibility, personal or institutional voice and normal context or setting of use for the document?"

Some questions are about the geographic attributes, such as:

1) "What are the range, location, and feasibility of access for target documents?"
2) "How representative are the documents in hand, and how do they link with other documents in a chain or complementary set?"
3) "What are the channels of transmission or dissemination for the documents?"

Several sociological questions can also be asked:

1) "What orientations, values, and ideologies does the document represent?"

2) "What is the nature or social functions of the document as text?"

A crucial issue which I have taken into account is the relationship between a document and its national context. "Once a document is in use it is itself part of that context and therefore contributes to the construction of later context" (Cortazzi, 2002: 202).

4.4.2 Interviews

The understanding of the life worlds of respondents and specific social groups is the *sine qua non* of qualitative interviewing. Gaskell (2000) suggests that "academic research uses in-depth interviews, while the commercial sector favours group interviewing" (p. 44). In my study, qualitative interviewing refers to conducting interviews of a semi-structured type with one respondent (the in-depth interview method).

It is assumed that the social world is not unproblematic: it is actively constructed by people in their everyday life, but not under conditions of their own making. These constructions form people's paramount reality, their life world. Using qualitative interviewing to map and understand the respondents' life world is the point of entry for the social scientist: he/she then works towards introducing interpretive frameworks to understand the actor's account in more conceptual or abstract terms.

The purpose of this study is to explore the different views and representations of the issue of TE in Taiwan. I have identified the development of TE in Taiwan as the social milieu. In order to be confident that the full range of views was explored, I interviewed participants of different social milieu. How this social milieu might be segmented with regard to TE should be considered. Hence, teachers of different gender, and those with different teaching experiences and positions in school are selected. Interviewing is not merely a one-way process involving the passing of information from the interviewees to myself. Rather, it is an interaction and an exchange of ideas and meanings, in which various realities and perceptions are explored and developed.

Semi-Structured Interviews

To allow individual respondents some freedom to talk about things of interest or important to them, semi-structured interviews were adopted in this study. Semi-structured interviews are flexible: a carefully worded interview schedule can allow greater latitude in its design, as can be seen in my study. Generally, I often started an interview with an initial question followed by probes. The schedule contained spaces to record notes when the interview was

recorded. My study encouraged participants to express their thoughts freely so that they could describe their thoughts and opinions in detail. It is hoped that such an approach will yield more in-depth information.

Before designing semi-structured interviews, I made a list of areas in which information was required. These were then translated into actual questions related to my research questions and probes designed for different people. The questions invited the interviewee to talk at length, in their own terms, giving them time for reflection.

The interview schedule in my study contains 5 main questions and numerous sub-questions. The structure of the questions for head teachers, teachers and officers is described in detail in Appendices B, C and D, and the list of semi-structured interview questions is shown in Appendices E, F and G.

Whom to Interview

This study investigates "teachers', head teachers' and officers' perceptions and interpretations of TE in Taiwan.

From the educational policy of TE, head teachers and teachers understand and internalise the value and expectations of the national culture. Therefore, exploring their understanding of TE can help us identify how the educational policy is implemented in practice. Interviewing the Section Manager of the Ministry of Education (MoE), the Commissioner of the Department of Education of Taipei City Government and the Chief of Taiwan's National Union of Teachers can help me understand a range of different viewpoints. The data collected came from three sets of interviews with officers, head teachers and participant teachers. According to my sampling, there are altogether 13 participants (interviewees) from Taiwan (where relevant, the responses gathered from my pilot study will also be included in my discussion). Their interviews were digitally recorded and selectively transcribed.

When to Interview

"Human memory can ... be very frail, especially about emotive issues ... When participants are being asked to describe or evaluate events, they should be interviewed as close to those events as feasible" (Wragg, 2002: 147). People's perception may transform dramatically over time. Therefore the best time to interview teachers and head teachers was immediately before or very near the beginning of the teacher evaluation cycle. This was

designed to elicit a greater amount of information from respondents about their perception of TE. If the interviews were left too late, they may have forgotten how they felt.

Interview Techniques

It would seem reasonable to assume that if a question-answer sequence is to make sense, the question must be understood by the interviewee in the way intended by the interviewer, and the answer given by the interviewee must be understood by the interviewer in the way it is intended. Although the question–answer sequence between interviewer and interviewee is like a casual conversation, some interview techniques have been used to help elicit more cultural information from the interlocutor. A structured guide to interview techniques can be found in various literatures (Crang & Cook, 2007; Foddy, 1995; Spradley, 1979).

To begin the interview proper, I prepared an opening ice-breaker as a means of combating nerves and awkwardness that either the interviewee or I myself might experience. This included introducing myself, telling the interviewee my research aim and research ethics, presenting checklisted issues and giving a small gift to express my appreciation.

The nature of the information required and an encoded request for this information in my interview was provided, whilst the interviewee was expected to decode this request in the way I hoped for. The interviewee must encode an answer that contained the information requested, while I decoded the answer in the way intended by the interviewee. Questions were often repeated when the answers were vague. Interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on topics. Sufficient time was given to all interviewees to answer each topic; they were not hastened to move to a new one. I then listened to the interviewee's responses to establish further topics that needed to be followed up in more focused interviews. "Leading questions" or "assumed questions", such as "how do you show that you are proud to be a teacher?" were largely avoided. Back-channelling or repeating what the respondents said often encouraged them to elaborate on their points. Alternatively, probing the interviewee's responses by asking questions like "what do you mean by ...?" and all general themes or topics intended to be covered was decided in advance. This provided me with a sense of direction and purposefulness.

Learning from Experienced Interviewers and Conducting Pilot Interviews

Prior to the formal start of each interview, two phases were considered, i.e. "learning from experienced interviewers" and "carrying out 2 pilot interviews".

In the "learning from experienced interviewers" stage, I organised my interview structure within a wider field of vision, and referred to relevant literature and my own experiences in education. To probe beneath the surface, I involved those who have more experiences in interviewing, and took on their comments when structuring my interviews. These experienced interviewers include Prof. Marilyn Osborn, Dr. Yen Tze-An, and Prof. Guo Chao-Yo. Through them, I learnt how to efficiently manage interviews; this gave me more confidence, particularly with regard to the trustworthiness of the results of my study. As a result of the pilot study, I altered the interview schedules considerably and implemented the modified version instead.

During the planning period of this study, I conducted 2 pilot interviews with a teacher and a head teacher from a school (School 3 in Table 4-2) in Taiwan. These pilot interviewees, who are experienced educators, have provided an early learning opportunity about important issues for teachers and how they talked about these matters within their profession. The interviews also helped me identify logistical and content-oriented refinements to the research design, and confirm that the semi-structured interview covered all the topics I was interested in and should be involved in my study.

4.5 Material

To ensure that the interpreters' experiences were collected and explored within the suitable context, some assisting materials were used in the study.

Digital recorder and microphone: Interviews were recorded with the permission of participants. Digital recorders, including iPod and pen recorder, were used during interviews. Both were used simultaneously to ensure the quality of the recording.

Questionnaire: The content of three different semi-structured interview schedules will be discussed in detail in the next section. Each interview has 5 main questions and numerous sub-questions (this is described in Section 4.5.2 and presented in Appendices B, C and D).

NVivo 8: This is a new generation qualitative research software. As well as being a powerful tool for qualitative data analysis, NVivo 8 can assist with project management, literature review and other research tasks. Since I was working with a huge amount of qualitative data and intended to give a detailed analysis of the

information collected, NVivo 8 helped me organise the data of documentation and interviews.

In short, a digital recorder and microphone were used to record the entire interview. Questionnaires serve to ensure that key issues were brought out during the interview. NVivo was used to structure the data collected into a meaningful way.

4.6 Methods of Analysis

The broad aim of the analysis is to look for meaning and understanding. What is actually said is the data, but the analysis should go beyond accepting this at face value. This study is concerned with the ways in which people construct their worlds, and investigates the construction of meanings and broad concepts. In his book, Williamson (2006) includes two specific chapters about ethnography, one from a theoretical perspective and another about ethnographic techniques, the latter of which is an ideal data analysis method in the "Constructivism" paradigm. Furthermore, the quest is for common content themes and the functions of these themes. All the analytical approaches were based on the full text of the interviews, so whatever analytic orientation was selected in the first stage it was to produce a good quality transcript. Although Gaskell (2000) claims that "there is no one best method" (p. 53), I chose to use critical ethnographic analysis to look at my interview data. Such an approach was in fact suggested by numerous researchers (Gaskell, 2000; Heyl, 2001; Crang & Cook, 2007; Berg, 2007; Spradley, 1979; Williamson, 2006; Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

The reason for adopting ethnographic analysis (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996) is to explore how documentations can be used to understand the trend of TE in the international context and how the international development of TE significantly influences the TE model in Taiwan. The first, second and third research questions investigated teachers', head teachers' and officers' perception and interpretation of TE. The second, fourth and fifth questions were constructed to analyse the characteristics of TE in Taiwan. The first stage was the "coding" process. Transcribed data were elicited from a "mini-disc recording" of the interviews, and the coding then linked all the collected data fragments to a particular idea or concept through NVivo 8. The data were a summary of successive decisions that identified relevant concepts used to generate ideas related to collected data. The second stage involved the creation of "meaningful categories". Collected data were systematically explored to generate meanings by generalising, noting and questioning the relation

between variables, and to find their conceptual and theoretical coherence. The final stage was one of "development of interpretation". In this phase, interpretive framework linked data segments and analytic ideas to generate emergent concepts. Consequently, a systemic relationship among categories and concepts was developed.

Gaskell (2000: 43) illustrates that "the transcript of an interview may run to 15 pages". Thus, with 13 interviews (including 2 pilot ones), there was an estimate of about 165 pages in the corpus. In order to analyse all these from the interviews and to go beyond the superficial selection of illustrative quotations, it was necessary to rely on digital technology. My ethnographic analysis was done by NVivo 8. Using the methodology of ethnographic analysis, the fourth, fifth and seventh questions of this study were achieved, as was part of the second and sixth questions (see Table 4-3).

4.7 Procedure

This section outlines the procedures involved in carrying out my study. Table 4-4 illustrates the main stages from the beginning of Autumn 2007 (the second year of my PhD studies, which involved the gathering and reading of literature related to TE) through to Spring 2010 (follow-up research).

Table 4-4: The procedure and time management plan of this research.

	First Year				*Second Year*				*Third Year*				*Fourth Year*			
	1 Q	*2 Q*	*3 Q*	*4 Q*	*1 Q*	*2 Q*	*3 Q*	*4 Q*	*1 Q*	*2 Q*	*3 Q*	*4 Q*	*1 Q*	*2 Q*	*3 Q*	*4 Q*
Gather and read literature related to TE	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■				
Gather and read regulations, and reports etc.			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■			
Confirm research proposal						■										
Proposal upgrade								■								
Document data collection						■	■	■	■	■						
Documentary analysis						■	■	■	■	■	■	■				
Pilot study (interview)							■	■								
Analysis of pilot interview data, modification of semi-structured interviews							■	■								
Arrange to visit educational institutes in England						■										
Arrange to visit educational institutes in Taiwan																

								■	■						
Visit educational institutions and conduct interviews in Taiwan								■	■						
Analyse interview data										■	■	■	■		
Writing up and interpretation of research								■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

The following table outlines the procedures involved in the data collection of this study, which began in April 2008 with the first pilot study, through to December 2008 with Phase 2.

Table 4-5: Outline of Phases of Study

Learning from experienced scholars	
Phase 1: April, May 2008	*3 experienced scholars; modification of my semi-structured interview questions*
Pilot Study	
Phase 2: June, July 2008	*1 head teacher, 1 teacher*
Main study	
Phase 3a – making contact: June, July 2008	*2 schools and 3 institutions (2 head teacher, 6 teachers and 3 officers)*
Phase 3b – interview: July,/August, 2008	*2 schools (2 head teacher and 6 teachers), 3 institutions (1 officer in each institution)*

As can be seen from Table 4-5, gathering the views of 3 experienced scholars in Phase 1 helped in making my interview schedule more logical and practical. Hence, it played a crucial role in my decision-making process, particularly in planning how the study was going to be conducted, and what the delimiting features of my research were. Further, it also ensured that the samples used were effective. Phase 2 involved conducting pilot interviews with two educators in Taiwan. Not only did this provide an opportunity for understanding the educational policy in Taiwan, it also offered another chance at assessing the rigour of my interview schedule. No modifications were made at this stage, and the interview format was retained.

There are numerous possibilities for examining teachers', head teachers' and officers' perspectives, although in general, it was important that all the participants had some experience of TE. This became my criterion for selecting participants in Phases 3a and 3b. The design involved interviewing those who have recently been evaluated, or those who evaluate other teachers. Participants were contacted via their institution between April and

July 2008. The participants were interviewed in Mandarin, so the discussion did not present any problems. Furthermore, my knowledge of the Taiwanese dialect allowed for leeway. Before embarking on the interviews, I kept a friendly relationship with my interviewees to promote their willingness to identify themselves with the study. The participants were encouraged to ask for explanations where they were unclear about the questions asked. All interviews typically lasted for 60–90 minutes.

Based on my considerable teaching experience in Taiwan, contacting the Commissioner of Department of Education in Taipei City Government, the Chief of the Taiwan's National Union of Teachers and the Section Manager of the MoE went smoothly, and all the interviews proceeded successfully.

4.8 Ethical Issues

Once suitable schools had been identified, letters were sent to the head teachers, enclosing an outline of the aims of my study, together with a copy of the ethical guidelines which would be adhered to (see Appendix IX).

There are traditionally three ethical topics surrounding the interview method. They are: 1) informed consent (receiving consent by the respondent after having carefully and truthfully informed him/her about research), 2) right to privacy (protecting the identity of the respondent), and 3) protection from harm (physical, emotional, or other kind) (Fontana and Frey, 2005). Therefore all participants in this research were ensured confidentiality and anonymity, and care was taken to ensure that their identity was not disclosed in any way.

Before being involved in this study, all participants, including teachers, head teachers and officers received a brief description of its purpose, and an abbreviated copy of the ethical code of the British Educational Research Association (translated into Chinese), where appropriate. All participants also received a list of the key points to be discussed beforehand, a full negotiation of the time schedule, promise of anonymity, and the freedom to abandon participation if uncomfortable.

All aspects of the research were carried out on the basis of informed consent. Participants were told that if they felt uncomfortable about having their interview recorded, the mini-disc could be switched off. However, I explained that the recording was used only for my study (and with pseudonyms). I also informed them that they had the right to withdraw from the research for any or no reason, and at any time (British Educational

Research Association, 2004). All three ethical topics were considered throughout my study.

4.9 Issues of Trustworthiness--Credibility, Transferability, Dependability and Confirmability

There is considerable debate about what constitutes good qualitative research. Regarding this issue, Guba's constructs correspond to the criteria employed by the researcher, namely, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (1981). Since Guba's constructs have been accepted by many studies (Shenton, 2004: 64), I employed the four criteria to assess the quality of my study.

Credibility

One of the key criteria used to address the quality of my study is credibility, in which I sought to ensure that my study engages in what is actually intended. Merriam (1998) claimed that the issue of "credibility" is to deal with the question of how congruent the findings are with reality.

Considering the "negative case analysis" recommended by commentators (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 1994; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006), which is the craftsmanship of credibility, the voices of the National Teachers Association (NTA) is revealed in this study to represent "moral integrity" (Kvale, 1996). Newspapers, which are deemed as a faithful recorder of events, play the same role in this study. Generally, negative cases provide alternative theoretical explanations for my findings and present a critical perspective of the relative strengths and weaknesses of my arguments.

Transferability

The findings of a qualitative research are specific to a small number of particular environment and individuals; it is difficult and complicated to demonstrate that the findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations. Erlandson *et al.* (1993) claimed that many naturalistic inquirers believe that even conventional generalisability is never possible as all observations are defined by the specific contexts in which they occur. However, Stake (1994) and Denscombe (1998) suggested that although each case may be unique, it is also an example within a broader group and, as a result, the prospect of transferability should not be immediately rejected.

The transferability in my study employed a full description of all the contextual factors impinging on the inquiry, as recommended by Guba (1981). Regarding TEPD, all the important elements which I wanted to convey were highlighted by the boundaries of the study, including all background factors and the historical development of related laws, regulations and experimental projects. Additional information must be considered before any attempts at transferability are made.

Nevertheless, such an approach can be pursued only with caution of the contextual factors that impinge on the case. Even when different investigations offer results that are not entirely consistent with one another, this does not, of course, necessarily imply that they are untrustworthy. It may be that they simply reflect multiple realities, and, if an appreciation can be gained of the reasons behind the variations, this understanding of the actual results reported may prove to be useful to the reader. It should thus be questioned whether the notion of producing truly transferable results from a single study is a realistic aim, or whether it disregards the importance of context which forms such a key factor in qualitative research.

Dependability

Shenton (2004) suggested that a researcher employs techniques to show that, if the work were repeated, in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, similar results would be obtained. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stressed the close ties between credibility and dependability, arguing that, in practice, a demonstration of the former goes some distance in ensuring the latter. This may be achieved through the use of "overlapping methods". In my study, different standpoints of document were employed, such as documentation from officials, National Teachers Association (NTA) and news. The interviewees were selected from different areas in Taipei, and the interview data were compared with informal conversations with participants from different counties in Taiwan. Those data elicited from individual interview were also validated by some dissertations in order to enhance the quality of this study.

Confirmability

Shenton (2004) defined confirmability as "the qualitative investigator's comparable concern to objectivity." (p. 72) He claimed the intrusion of the researcher's biases is inevitable. However, it is difficult to ensure that the work's findings are the result of the collecting data as far as possible, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the

researcher. Triangulation was adopted to promote confirmability and to reduce the possible bias in the research process. One important way of assessing the confirmability of my research findings is to employ the triangulation of methods. This is defined by Hesse-Biber and Leavy as "using two different methods to get at the same research question with the goal of looking for 'convergence' in research findings" (2006: 65). One reason for using triangulation is based on the assumption that people sometimes give indirect or vague answers. The procedures of triangulation can be used to improve understanding and/or the credibility of a study. The other reason is that there are some successful studies using a combination of methods, such as Lee (2000), Levacic (1995), and Deem (1993). Hence, Osborn suggests that "'triangulation' ... help[s] to atone for some of the problems inherent in the questionnaire/survey method" (Osborn, 2004: 272).

In my research, besides using documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews, a meta-analysis was carried out. This meta-analysis draws upon 54 dissertations and theses that investigated educators' perspectives of teacher professional development in each county respectively. By carrying out a meta-analysis of teachers' viewpoints (based on various statistical results), teachers' feelings and attitude about TEPD can be revealed. It is hoped that a combination of research methods – namely documentary analysis, interview, and meta-analysis of dissertations – will help to improve my study's confirmability and eradicate the weaknesses associated with studies using a single method/observer/theory.

4.10 Potential Contribution

Taiwan experienced a vehement reaction from teachers around the island when the educational authority began carrying out TE below senior high schools. This sparked off three issues for detailed discussion in Taiwanese society. The first is the decline in teachers' authoritative position in the traditional culture of Taiwan. The second is the ambiguity of the concept, definition and content of TE. The third pertains to the formulation of the relevant regulation for TE.

TE is a critical measure for encouraging teachers' development and enhancing students' learning. If it progresses successfully and smoothly, not only could my research help the establishment of an integral theoretical basis for TE, but it might also serve as an important academic reference for further research on this topic. Most importantly, the results presented could be a significant source for the future enactment and promotion of the TE policy in Taiwan.

4.11 Summary

Constructivism was adopted as the methodological paradigm in this study. My study incorporates a range of perspectives, including different approaches to TE gathered from a review of international research, interviews and documentation.

First, international research on the issue of TE was explored. This will ultimately culminate in a series of recommended models for TE (in Chapter 5).

Second, I collected related documentations and interview data. There were 13 interviewees in my study (pilot and main phases), including 7 teachers, 3 head teachers and 3 officers. All interviewees were seen as interpreters engaged in a dialogue with the social context. Through their interpretations, the complexity of TEPD's implementation was partially constructed. Further, documentation data were collected from official and contextual documentations. Official documentation consists of TE regulations and related laws, including meeting records of the discussion of these related bills. Where relevant, news and school documents related to TEPD (such as teachers' self-evaluation form and observed evaluation form) were employed as contextual documentations.

Third, the empirical data collected using interviews and documentation will be compared with an 'ideal' TE model in Chapter 5. The implementation of TEPD was constructed based on the data collected using interviews and documentation. In Chapter 5, such empirical explorations will also be compared with the recommended models for TE.

Chapter 5 Contemporary Models of Evaluation

5.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore the development of TE in order to understand contemporary paradigms. This understanding will be used to examine and underpin the current implementation of TEPD in Taiwan.

This chapter is divided into five main sections: models of evaluation (Section 5.1), models of teacher evaluation (Section 5.2), the four generations of teacher evaluation (Section 5.3), the standards of evaluation/teacher evaluation (Section 5.4) and trend of teacher evaluation (Section 5.5).

5.1 Models of Evaluation

The field of evaluation has been developed for more than forty years. During this period, over sixty models or approaches of formal/informal evaluation were introduced (Worthen, Sanders & Fitzpatrick, 1997). Recently, some new models of evaluation are continually innovated, such as "empowerment evaluation" (Fetterman, 1994, 1997, 2000; Fetterman, Kaftarian & Wandersman, 1996) and "cluster evaluation" (Sanders, 1997) etc. In 1987, Worthen and Sanders organised more than 50 different evaluation models in two decades. Worthen and Sanders (1987) and their other research (Worthen, Sanders & Fitzpatrick 1997) categorised such models into six approaches. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) classified evaluation approaches into five categories, with 26 programme evaluation approaches. The first category includes approaches that promote invalid or incomplete finding, and the other four include approaches that more or less agree with their definition.

Table 5-1: Evaluation Approaches

Evaluation approaches	Meaning	Programme evaluation approach
Pseudo-evaluations:	These are often motivated by political objectives. The objectionable approaches are presented because they deceive through evaluation and can be used by those in power to mislead constituents or to gain and maintain an unfair advantage over others, especially persons with little power.	Approach 1: Public relations-inspired studies Approach 2: Politically controlled Studies Approach 3: Pandering Evaluations Approach 4: Evaluation by Pretext Approach 5: Empowerment under the guise of evaluation
Questions- and Methods-Oriented Evaluation (Quasi-Evaluation	They address specified questions (often employing a wide range of methods), and methods-oriented approaches typically use a particular method.	Approach 6: Objective-Based studies Approach 7: Accountability,

Studies)		Particularly Payment by Results Studies. Approach 8: Success Case Method Approach 9: Objective Testing Programs Approach 10: Outcome Evaluation as Value-Added Assessment. Approach 11: Performance Testing. Approach 12: Experimental Studies. Approach 13: Management Information Systems. Approach 14: Benefit-Cost Analysis Approach. Approach 15: Clarification Hearing. Approach 16: Case Study Evaluations. Approach 17: Criticism and Connoisseurship. Approach 18: Program Theory-Based Evaluation. Approach 19: Mixed-Methods Studies.
Improvement– and Accountability- Oriented Evaluation:	These are expansive and seek comprehensiveness in considering the full range of questions and criteria needed to assess a program's value.	Approach 20: Decision/Accountability-Oriented Studies. Approach 21: Consumer-Oriented Studies. Approach 22: Accreditation and Certification Approach.
Social Agenda and Advocacy Approaches:	These seek to ensure that all segments of society have equal access to educational and social opportunities and services.	Approach 23: Responsive Evaluation or Client-Centred Studies. Approach 24: Constructivist Evaluation. Approach 25: Deliberative Democratic Evaluation.
Eclectic Evaluation Approaches:	These are designed to accommodate needs and preferences of a wide range of evaluation clients and evaluation assignments, often with the express aim of seeking a programs' merit and worth unconstrained by the parameters of a single model or approach.	Approach 26: Utilization-Focused Evaluation.

Organised from Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007)

Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) identified nine approaches as the strongest and most promising ones for continued use and development beyond 2000, based on the Joint

Committee Program Evaluation Standards. These were derived by the authors using a special checklist keyed to the Standards. The ratings of these approaches are Decision/Accountability, Consumer Orientation, Accreditation, Utilization-Focused, and Client-Centered/Responsive, Deliberative Democratic, Constructivist, Case Study, and Outcomes Monitoring/Value Added. (ibid: 239)

Stufflebeam suggested that the Deliberative Democratic approach and the Constructivist approach can be employed by the researcher (2001: 89). Stufflebeam claimed that the Deliberative Democratic approach is "new and appears to be promising for testing and further development ", while the Constructivist approach is a "well-founded, mainly qualitative approach to evaluation that systematically engages interested parties to help conduct both the divergent and convergent stages of evaluation" (2001: 89).

5.2 Models of Teacher Evaluation

There are two primary purposes in any personnel evaluation system, and they are "performance assessment" and "performance improvement" (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). With regard to accountability, schools have a professional and ethical responsibility to ensure that educators are competent and are fulfilling their roles. However an evaluation system provides constructive and detailed feedback to foster continuous professional development and improvement. Hence, a meaningful evaluation system must be both outcome-oriented and improvement-oriented.

Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995) stated that the word "model" is related only to a series of directions leading to designed conclusions; alternative perspectives should not be accorded the status of a model. Stronge and Tucker (2003) suggested that the TE model is constructed with the following objectives: 1) to contribute to the successful achievement of the goals and objectives of the whole school system, 2) to improve the quality of instruction by assuring accountability for classroom performance, 3) to provide a basis for instructional improvement and professional growth, and 4) to create a collaborative process for evaluation between teacher and administrator that promotes self-growth, instructional effectiveness, and improvement of overall job performance. According to Stronge and Tucker (2003), the objectives of TE include not only teacher's professional development, but also the goal of the school system. There must be consistency between these two objectives.

The study of Danielson and McGreal (2000) is also useful in many ways. They believe that a new TE system should: 1) be directly linked to the mission of the school district, 2) be viewed as continuing processes, 3) emphasise student outcomes, and 4) be a commitment to allocating adequate resources to allow new systems to be successful (pp. 18-19). According to research above, and with reference to the previous section about definitions and purposes of TE, I recognise that some issues are not directly related to TE, including the studies of Shinkfield and Stufflebeam and Danielson and McGreal. In my view, a good model of teacher evaluation system should: 1) be directly linked and contribute to the goal of school, 2) be provided as a continuing process of instructional improvement and professional growth, and 3) assure accountability by improving the quality of classroom performance, especially students' learning outcome.

It is found that a wide variety of TE models are used in local school systems or counties in the U.S. McGreal (1983) categorises previous research into four main models: *Common Law, Goal Setting, Product, and Artistic/Naturalistic.* Gitlin and Smyth (1989) neatly group them into two main categories: *educative* and *dominant,* while Walsh (1987) names them *participative* and *controlling.* McGreal's *Common Law, Goal Setting*, and *Product models* as dominant sorted by Gitlin and Smyth (1989) and Walsh (1987) would classify them as controlling because they are individually focused, judgmental, and hierarchical. Processes of evaluation like those promoted by researchers like Madeline Hunter, while making lavish claims to being scientific and research-based, are really nothing more than ways of "bolstering corporate, institutional, and bureaucratic interests" (Smyth, 1991: 70). Ten teacher evaluation models are labelled by Shinkfield and Stufflebeam according to Michael Scriven's work in 1991 (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam 1995). Stronge and Tucker (2003) identified seven evaluation models by their distinctive features. They are the teacher trait model, process-oriented model, duties-based evaluation, accountability, goals-based evaluation, professional growth model, and hybrid model.

Table 5-2: Stronge and Tucker's Evaluation Models

Model	Characteristics
Teacher trait model	This is characterized by a checklist of desirable attributes for teachers, for example "enthusiastic", "fair", and "creative" etc.
Process-oriented model	This focuses on the instructional "processes" taking place in the classroom that can be easily observed by a supervisor.
Duties-based evaluation	This is based on specific tasks or requirements of the job, such as the frequent assessment of student learning.
Accountability	This typically links judgment about teacher performance to student achievement of learning objectives or other outcome measures.
Goals-based evaluation	This is especially appropriate for more experienced teachers who set their own goals for professional development and are then evaluated based on their goal attainment.
Professional growth model	This focuses on individual teachers and their development as professionals. Observers provide ongoing, formative feedback for improving teaching skills.
Hybrid	This integrates multiple purposes and methodologies combined from any of the six models listed above. More prescriptive models are used for less experienced teachers and more open-ended models for experienced teachers.

Stronge and Tucker's work is described in detail in this section for two reasons: 1) there are three overlapping models (teacher trait model, accountability, and professional growth model) in their research, and 2) the methods adopted are more deliberate, and they are coherently categorised according to various characteristics.

Stronge and Tucker claimed that "there is no one perfect approach" (2003: 19). The better design is a carefully crafted hybrid which can minimize weakness by combining strategies that naturally compensate for each other. It is, however, no longer acceptable to judge teaching ability according to a set of pre-determined criteria (Sara, 1995). Twenty-first century conceptions of school reform and the professionalisation of teaching cannot co-exist with early twentieth-century models of evaluation, especially when these afford unacceptably simplistic notions of teaching (Shulman *et al.*, 1988). The true test of approaches to evaluation will be whether or not they contribute to the needs and goals of a particular school system which reflect the community's values and beliefs about teaching,

and more importantly, about learning. If evaluation does not become part of the solution, then it will surely become part of the problem (Shulman, 1987).

5.3. The Four Generations of Teacher Evaluation

As Caulley (1987) pointed out, evaluation as a professional activity is still in its infancy. Lincoln and Guba (1992) reiterated this viewpoint. While models and approaches to evaluation evolve, each has the potential to contribute to and build on the experiences of the past. Guba and Lincoln (1989) have categorised successive evaluation paradigms into "generations" (p. 39), with the fourth generation of evaluation identified with the postmodern epistemology of constructivism.

Adapting the work of Guba and Lincoln (1989) to the classroom situation, generations of evaluation activity can be summarised as follows:

The first generation (early 1900s - 1930) saw teachers using tests as a measure of student ability, thereby enabling them to create lists showing the relative standing of their students based on performance tasks.

The second generation (1930 - 1967) allowed teachers to describe differences among students in terms of their proximity to defined objectives. Teachers were involved in school level program evaluation activities with measurement being used as an evaluation tool.

The third generation (1967 - circa 1987) arose out of a need for teachers to include more overt judgments of worth or value in school programs. In order to make evaluation judgments more useful, efforts were made to relate judgments to standards for evaluation, in spite of the value laden nature of these activities.

Guba and Lincoln (1990) have pointed out that there are three major pervasive problems associated with the first three generations of evaluation, i.e., "a tendency towards managerialism" (p. 32), "failure to accommodate value pluralism" (p. 34) and "overcommittment to the scientific paradigm of inquiry" (p. 35).

In order to avoid a managerial ideology, Guba and Lincoln (1989) reconsidered the ontological bases of evaluative interpretations and accounted for pluralistic values. They developed the fourth generation evaluation (a.k.a responsive constructivist). The term "responsive" is used to designate the boundaries of evaluation established through negotiations between client and evaluator. The term "constructivist" is used to designate

the methodology which has its root in an inquiry paradigm; it is an alternative to the scientific paradigm. The fourth generation evaluation adopts a responsive mode of focus, seeking different stakeholders' views as the basis for evaluation, and formats a common psychological construction through negotiation. Fourth generation evaluation beliefs are summarised in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3: Fourth Generation Evaluation Beliefs

Belief	*Description*
Ontology: *Relativism*	*Realities are multiple and socially constructed. They are not governed by any natural laws, causal or otherwise. Truth is the best informed (amount and quality of information) and most sophisticated (power with which the information is understood and used) construction on which there is consensus. (It is possible for more than one construction to exist simultaneously, each of which meets that criterion.)*
Epistemology: *Transactional Subjectivism*	*It is asserted that the inquirer and focus of inquiry are linked so strongly that the findings of an investigation are literally the creation of the process of inquiry. (Thus the distinction between what is real and what is known about what is real becomes blurred.)*
Methodology: *Hermeneutic-Dialecticism*	*A method which is a continuing reiteration, re analysis, etc., concluding with the emergence of a joint (among all inquirers and respondents or among outside (etic) and inside (emic) views) construction of a case.*

(Note from Guideline and checklist for constructivist evaluation, by Guba & Lincoln, 2001 and Fourth Generation Evaluation (p. 84), by Guba & Lincoln, 1989)

The fourth generation evaluation approach (hereafter abbreviated 4GE) focuses on the involvement of all relevant stakeholders operating within a view of responsive constructivism, where stakeholders are treated in terms of their projected interests. Their involvement is integral to the rationalisation of the process. The 4GE teacher has to undertake a negotiation process that attempts to reach a general agreement of better informed and more sophisticated constructions among all stakeholders of the programme being evaluated. One key purpose of the 4GE approach applied to the classroom level is for the teacher to prepare a construction of the impact of a project, classroom activity or programme which is 1) agreed by the various stakeholders, and 2) "best informed" in terms of quality and quantity of information.

Utilising the 4GE approach might result in numerous challenges for teachers. For example, there is the problem of politics when stakeholders wish to see publications of children's performance tests at school. Guba and Lincoln (2001) have detailed guidance on preparing an agenda for negotiating claims, concerns, issues and implementing the process. However, the issue is unresolved if there is: 1) no general agreement in decision-making, and 2) the absence of practical action in the final analysis. This could lead us into conflict. The other key factor involved with the 4GE process is that mobilising the evaluation time

is necessary. Fishman (1992) has suggested that the approach is likely to be "unwieldy and difficult to implement" (p. 268). If teachers are spending time on evaluation initiatives and facilitating the exchange of ideas among stakeholders, this time is not available for other areas of professional activity, such as curriculum material production, writing reports and preparing for classes. There clearly needs to be an integration of curriculum and evaluation initiatives to ensure a more efficient and coherent programme for teachers.

5.4 The Standards of Evaluation/Teacher Evaluation

While the design of a new evaluation system can vary considerably depending on the purposes and values of a given school organisation and the cultural context, there are certain key characteristics that define a legally sound and ethical system. McConney (2000) claims that the appropriate system-level standards by which all evaluation systems should be assessed are The Personnel Evaluation Standards of The Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (1988). The Standards, "approved by the American National Standards Institute, are widely recognized as the authoritative work on guidelines for assessing systems of personnel evaluation" (McConney 2000: 107), and include the four basic sets of standards: propriety, utility, feasibility, and accuracy. Numerous researchers (Stronge 2003, Stronge 2006, Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007) have the same viewpoint; therefore no elaboration is required here.

The second edition of the Personnel Evaluation Standards (2009) is based on knowledge about personnel evaluation gained from the professional literature and research/development since 1988. This edition contains 27 standards. The Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation requires that personnel evaluations be ethical, fair, useful, feasible, and accurate. The standards also provide special consideration to issues of diversity.

The four essential attributes of sound educational evaluation practices are (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation 2009):

The Propriety standards require that evaluations be conducted legally, ethically, and with due regard for the welfare of evaluatees and clients involved in. There are seven standards under this attribute which include service orientation, appropriate policies and procedures, access to evaluation information, interactions with evaluatees, comprehensive evaluation, conflict of interest, and legal viability (ibid: 5).

Utility standards are intended to guide evaluations so that they will be informative, timely, and influential. There are six standards under this attribute which include constructive orientation, defined uses, evaluator qualifications, explicit criteria, functional reporting, and follow-up/professional development (ibid).

Feasibility standards require evaluation systems that are as easy to implement as possible, efficient in their use of time and resources, adequately funded, and viable from a number of other standpoints. There are three standards under this attribute including practical procedures, political viability, and fiscal viability (ibid: 5-6).

Accuracy standards demand that the obtained information be technically accurate and that conclusions be linked logically to the data. There are eleven standards under this attribute including validity orientation, defined expectations, analysis of context, documented purposes and procedures, defensible information, systemic data control, bias identification and management, analysis of information, justified conclusions, and meta-evaluation (ibid: 6).

Below is a brief overview of how these four categories of standards can be incorporated to TE in view of the second edition of the Personnel Evaluation Standards provided by Stronge and Tucker (2003).

Table 5-4: Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards to Teacher Evaluation.

Standards	*Description of the standards*	*Application to Teacher Evaluation*
Propriety Standards	*Evaluations should be legal, ethical, and conducted with concern for the welfare of both the evaluatees and their clients.*	*Written policy inclusive of criteria and procedures* *Job-related evaluation criteria* *Prior notification before evaluation begins* *Legal compatibility with statutory mandates* *Equitable treatment of all teachers*
Utility Standards	*Evaluations should be offered in a timely manner, useful format, and with information that the evaluatee can to improve performance.*	*Detailed and focused feedback that enhances instruction for children* *Constructive suggestions that allow sufficient time for improvement* *Process promotes growth*
Feasibility Standards	*Evaluation system must be reasonable to use in terms of the time and resources required to conduct the evaluation, in addition to providing valuable feedback.*	*Practical procedures for both teachers and administrators* *Perception of meaningful evaluation as a priority for the school system, with adequate support*
Accuracy Standards	*Information collected during the evaluation must be valid and precise in order to draw conclusions about job performance.*	*Written documentation of all communications regarding performance* *Recommendations based on patterns of behaviour* *Substantiation for personnel recommendation that are made*

(Resource: Stronge & Tucker 2003: 20)

The standards of evaluation can be used to examine the quality of the evaluation system. These standards provide different emphases, cross-checks, and complementary treatments of the requirement for sound evaluation when developing the system. The four sets of standards are utilised in this study to examine the current development of TE in Taiwan.

There are literally hundreds or thousands of sets of teaching standards in existence, if one counts all of the standards developed by states and local school districts. A set of standards for teacher evaluation comes from William Ribas's research. He defines 10 teacher performance standards for evaluating teachers (2005). This set is selected here because it strongly emphasises instruction, and is developed by a practising administrator. Ribas constructed 10 performance standards for a teacher, including "competency in subject", "plans instruction", "assess student", "communicates with students",

"instructional techniques", "classroom management", "mutual respect and safety", "high expectations for student", "equity for student", and "continuing professionalism".

One of the most popular current models for teacher evaluation is developed by Charlotte Danielson (2001). Her framework is based on the research on teaching and is compatible with the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) standards. Danielson conceptualises teaching in four domains: planning and preparation, the classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. Included in these four domains are 22 teaching components. They are:

Table 5-5: Charlotte Danielson's Teacher Evaluation Model

Domain	*Component*
1: Planning and Preparation	*1a: Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy* *1b: Demonstrating Knowledge of Students* *1c: Selecting Instructional Goals* *1d: Demonstrating Knowledge of Resources* *1e: Designing Coherent Instruction* *1f: Assessing Student Learning*
2: Classroom Environment	*2a: Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport* *2b: Establishing a Culture for Learning* *2c: Managing Classroom Procedures* *2d: Managing Student Behavior* *2e: Organizing Physical Space*
3: Instruction	*3a: Communicating Clearly and Accurately* *3b: Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques* *3c: Engaging Students in Learning* *3d: Providing Feedback to Students* *3e: Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness*
4: Professional Responsibilities	*4a: Reflecting on Teaching* *4b: Maintaining Accurate Records* *4c: Communicating with Families* *4d: Contributing to the School and District* *4e: Growing and Developing Professionally* *4f: Showing Professionalism*

Besides Ribas (2005) and Danielson (2001), NBPTS (1999) and Iwanicki (1998) also addressed standards for TE. However, the first two sets of standards are more widely

accepted in practice, and Ribas's model can be subsumed within Danielson's. Hence, this study adopts Danielson's model of standards to examine the TE system in Taiwan.

5.5 Trend in Teacher Evaluation

In the U.S., schools and districts have recently discovered that they can shape an evaluation system so that it contributes substantially to the quality of teaching (Danielson, 2001). In this section, the trend of TE is drawn by exploring numerous studies which are related to teaching effectiveness and teacher evaluation. Danielson (2001) suggested that a new TE system should have some characteristics: 1) differentiated systems, 2) multiyear cycles, and 3) active teacher roles. Danielson and McGreal redesigned an evaluation programme as a basic three-track model for initial staff development, professional growth, and specific staff development (2000: 79).

In contrast, Mayo's (1997) study employed nine evaluation procedures. They included: 1) classroom observations, 2) peer partnership, 3) teacher mentoring, 4) peer coaching, 5) portfolios, 6) self-evaluation, 7) student/parent evaluation, 8) artefacts collection, and 9) action research. The modification of the evaluation model was supported by the Missouri Council of School Administrators (MSCA), and it consisted of multiple Likert scale categories instead of the "meets expectation, does not meet expectation" format (MCSA, 2004). The evaluator was allowed to make choices using the multiple Likert scale. In some ways, this is more relevant to teachers with multiple experience and those of varying performance levels.

Marshall (1998) suggested redesigning approaches to TE so that the evaluation process is more effective for teacher development. Such an evaluation should be founded on its goals and criteria that are agreed upon by the head teacher and all teachers in school. The evaluation system should give teachers beneficial dialogue based on students' needs, the opportunity to learn new teaching techniques, and advice from the head teacher and other experienced teachers about how to improve the teaching quality. Furthermore, Marshall mentioned that the standards used by the administrator should: 1) relate to best practices in teaching skills, 2) be as objective as possible, 3) be clearly communicated to the teacher before the evaluation, 4) be reviewed after the evaluation, and 5) be linked to the teacher's professional development (Marshall, 1998).

Sawyer (2001b) investigated one school district in Nevada. The school district created a new performance-based TE model which consisted of four domains of teaching: 1)

planning and preparation, 2) classroom environment, 3) instruction, and 4) professional responsibilities. Each domain identifies components and more specific elements of teachers' behaviour. Such behaviour is scored as 1) unsatisfactory, 2) target for growth, 3) proficient, or 4) area of strength. There are several key causes for the success of this evaluation model. First, there were annual goal-setting sessions between teachers and principals. Teachers were taught self-reflective practices, and adjustments to teaching strategies were encouraged when necessary (Sawyer, 2001a). Second, novice and experienced teachers received different numbers of evaluations. Third, the data collection processes were expanded to include parent conferences, IEP meetings, and artefact (letters to parents and activities in which teachers participated) collection (Sawyer, 2001b).

Other new directions in evaluation are offered by Peterson (2000) to improve results for teachers, administrators, students, and the public. These include (Peterson, 2000: 4-12):

1) Emphasizing the function of teacher evaluation to seek out, document and acknowledge the good teaching that already exists.

2) Using good reasons to evaluate.

3) Placing the teacher at the centre of evaluation activity.

4) Using more than one person to judge teacher quality and performance.

5) Limiting administrator judgment role in teacher evaluation.

6) Using multiple data sources to inform judgments about teacher quality.

7) When possible, including actual pupil achievement data.

8) Using variable data sources to inform judgments.

9) Spending the time and other resources needed to recognize good teaching.

10) Using research on teacher evaluation correctly.

11) Attending to the sociology of teacher evaluation.

12) Using the results of teacher evaluation to encourage personal professional dossiers, publicize aggregated results, and support teacher promotion systems.

Marshall also suggested that head teachers could try a 12-step programme for evaluation (2005: 732-735). By comparing Marshall's and Peterson's models, I devised a set of recommendations (see Table 5-6).

Table 5-6: Comparison of Marshall's Programme, Peterson's New Direction and My Recommendations

Marshall's 12-step programme	*Peterson's new direction*	*My recommendations*
1) Make sure the basics are in place, *2) Decide on the irreducible elements of good teaching,*	*1) Emphasizing the function of teacher evaluation to seek out, document and acknowledge the good teaching that already exists.* *2) Using good reasons to evaluate.*	*1) Determine the purposes and meaning of teacher evaluation through discussion at school meetings.*
	9) Spending the time and other resources needed to recognize good teaching. *10) Using research on teacher evaluation correctly.*	*2) Discuss relevant research to decide on an adequate evaluation model, including suitable procedures and standards.*
3) Systematically visit all classrooms on a regular basis, *4) Give teachers prompt, face-to-face feedback after every classroom visit,* *8) Arrange for high-quality feedback on lessons for teachers,* *10) Use short observation visits to write teachers' finial evaluations,*	*3) Placing the teacher at the centre of evaluation activity.*	*3) Systematic classroom observation.* *4) Face-to face feedback*
5) Require teacher teams to develop common unit plans and assessments, *6) Require teams to give common interim assessments,*	*. 4) Using more than one person to judge teacher quality and performance.* *5) Limiting administrator judgment role in teacher evaluation*	*5) Establish a peer group to develop evaluation*
	6) Using multiple data sources to inform judgments about teacher quality. *8) Using variable data sources to inform judgments.*	*6) Use multiple data, including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement.*
7) Have teams report on student learning after each unit or quarter, *11) Include measures of student learning gains in teachers' evaluation,*	*7) When possible, including actual pupil achievement data.*	
9) Create a professional learning culture in the school, *12) Use a rubric to evaluate teachers.*	*11) Attending to the sociology of teacher evaluation.*	*7) Set up a system for improving the abilities of inadequate teachers.*
	12) Using the results of teacher evaluation to encourage personal professional dossiers, publicize aggregated results, and support teacher promotion systems.	*8) Encourage professional development using the results of teacher evaluation.*

The recommendations I listed above can avoid the failures that were pointed out by Marshall (ibid). These failures include the following: 1) evaluation of only a tiny amount of teaching, 2) micro-evaluations of individual lessons do not carry much weight, 3) the lessons that principals evaluate are often atypical, 4) isolated lessons give an incomplete picture of instruction, 5) evaluation almost never focuses on student learning, and 6) high-stake evaluation tends to shut down adult learning. In general, they can be categorised into two aspects: "inadequate objects for evaluation" and "insufficient evaluated data".

Several important points can be deduced from the literature review above, including a central idea and three related strategies. The central idea is that TE should place the teacher at the centre of evaluation activity (Peterson, 2000), i.e. it should be "teacher-centred". This includes the improvement of professionalism and the promotion of accountability (Marshall 2005).

The first strategy is differentiated systems. Different teachers have different needs, therefore differentiated designs can tailor TE criteria accordingly (Danielson, 2001; Peterson, 2000; Sawyer 2001a). For example, a novice teacher needs annual evaluation to monitor his/her progress, while an experienced teacher requires multi-year cycles to confirm his/her achievement in terms of professional development. A teacher who has specific needs might require a suitable evaluation system related to professional skills, so that s/he can improve his/her quality of teaching. The second strategy is self-reflective (Marshall, 1998; Mayo, 1997; Sawyer, 2001b). Teacher should realise the benefit of TE so that the process can be meaningful and valuable, otherwise, they often harbour irrational fear that the head teacher may "walk into their classrooms, clipboard in hand, their jobs are on the line, and then evaluation raises tension and anxiety and makes it more difficult to admit [their] errors." (Marshall, 2005: 730) Negotiations between the evaluatee and the evaluator can improve their relationship, thereby constructing a beneficial evaluation for teachers and facilitating the development of their profession. The final strategy is to use multiple data (Danielson, 2001; Mayo, 1997; Peterson, 2000; Sawyer, 2001b). Besides classroom observation, the collection of data using portfolios, interviews, pupils' achievements and so forth can be adopted in a TE system.

5.6 Summary

From the review of the development of teacher evaluation above, I discovered that there are several major themes, all of which are summarised as follows:

1. The purpose of TE should focus on teacher professional development, and should be consistent with the goal of a school's development.
2. There are eight recommended steps to establish TE in school: 1) determine the purposes and meaning of teacher evaluation through discussion at school meetings, 2) discuss relevant research to decide on an adequate evaluation model, including suitable procedures and standards, 3) systematic classroom observation, 4) face-to-face feedback, 5) establish a peer group to develop evaluation, 6) use multiple data, including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement, 7) set up a system for improving the abilities of inadequate teachers, and 8) encourage professional development using the results of teacher evaluation.
3. Danielson's TE model is most widely accepted in practice. It includes four domains: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibility (see Table 5-5).
4. The evaluation form can be designed as the multiple Likert scale, using gentle words such as 1) unsatisfactory, 2) target for growth, 3) proficiency, or 4) area of strength, in order to allow educators to easily make choices.
5. Four strategies for constructing evaluation systems: 1) differentiated systems, 2) self-reflective, 3) negotiations, and 4) multiple data (including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement).
6. The four indicators of the *Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards to Teacher Evaluation* provide a tool of meta-evaluation, i.e. propriety, utility, feasibility, and accuracy, which can be used to test the effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD.

All these six aspects, which I will call Recommended Models of Teacher Evaluation (RMTE) from this point onwards, are employed as a basis for comparison when I examine the quality of the current implementation of TEPD.

Chapter 6 The English Experience of Teacher Evaluation

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter, TE is examined, historically, in the light of the social background and the development of the national policy in England. It focuses on the realm of TE and relevant education reform movements. This chapter discusses the meanings, contents and characteristics of TE regulations in England 1991, 2001, and 2006, giving special focus to factors that influenced the legislations. The National Union of Teachers' (NUT) viewpoints, as presented through English teachers' perceptions, are also included. Finally, I refer to some personal experiences of visiting English primary schools and talking with staff.

Although there are some differences between "teacher evaluation" and "teacher appraisal", as discussed in Chapter 1, I chose to use the term "teacher evaluation" in this study. In the English context, the term "teacher appraisal" is utilised, although one should note that it has been changed to "teacher performance management" since 2004.

6.1 Rationale

Much international research has been introduced to Taiwan through scholars' responses to the 410 March (the education reform movement in Taiwan discussed in Chapter 2). Most of the research described the American and English experiences in education reform. Various papers discuss recent education reforms in England during the teacher evaluation experiments implemented by the MoE. Some research illustrated the National Curriculum reform (Jiang, 1997; Lee, 2001) and the teacher education reform (Lee, 2001; Lee, 2003; Lee, 2005). Many studies focus on teacher professional development (Chang, 2001; Lee 2003; Jiang, 2004; Shen, 2006), while several others discuss the educational policy (Lee, 2001; Jiang, 2003; Lin, 2004; Chang, 1999; Su, 2000; Huang, 2002; Wen, 2006). The majority of the research explores TE in England (Fu, 1995, 1998; Yeh, 1998; Su, 2001; Cheng, 2003; Din & Chang, 2004; Wen, 2004; Lee, 2006; Chang, 2007).

The studies above depict the English experience of TE as a "good measure". Lee stated that:

> The mechanism of teacher evaluation in England is based on relevant policies and legislations and a series of executing measures and evaluation reports. When the teacher evaluation mechanism is designed in our country, the English experience could be a good example. (2006: 196)

Further, after exploring Paxman's (2000) and Fox's (2005) works, Chang (2007) discerns several English charactereristics, such as "more rational and scientific and less philosophical", "encouraged to test things critically and believe in general knowledge", "encouraged to exercise moderation, not extremity", and "emphasise individual freedom, with a clear understanding of one's rights" (pp. 4-5). From Chang's description of the features above, although there are some weaknesses, the strengths imply that the English experience is worth imitating, for example "encouraged to test things critically and believe in general knowledge" and "emphasise individual freedom, with a clear understanding of one's rights". It is worth noting that all the aforementioned studies adopt documentary analysis as their research method, apart from Jiang (2003) who used interviews (but only in part). Moreover, all collected documentations in those studies were official publications only going up to 2006. In this chapter, I include not only the most current data available, but also some informal observations made in three English primary schools and informal conversations with four teachers, a deputy head teacher, and a head teacher. Another difference between the previous studies and my research is the aim. To date, most of the research in this area describes the English system and models, based on the assumption that the TE system is mature in England and can be transferred to the Taiwanese context. In contrast, my study is concerned with the formatting of the TE policy within the discourse of the public sphere and its interaction with the Taiwanese government's viewpoint, the National Union of Teachers' policy, and reflections from English society. In general, I drew inspirations from the historical perspective of the English experience, informal interviews combined with various official documentations, viewpoints of the National Union of Teachers, and news reports related to TE. When exploring the meaning of TE, I believe that attention ought to be given to: 1) the process of reconceptualisation, and 2) the development of educational policy in Taiwan.

6.2 The Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulations 1991

In this section, the socio-economic background which influenced the formulation of the policy of TE is described. Further, the results of implementation, including the NUT's standpoint and changes in education practice, are investigated. The TE system in 1991 is discussed in detail in this section.

6.2.1 The Development of Teacher Evaluation

The main concern of this section is to trace how evaluation came about in England, and how this reflects upon the formulation of an education policy that meets society's needs through public discourse.

Bell (1988) stated that British teachers were experiencing great freedom in their curriculum decisions by the second half of the twentieth century. The widely accepted starting point is "The Great Debate", initiated by James Callaghan in 1976, calling for higher standards and greater accountability in education. "By 1976, the Labour government was in deep financial trouble, and Callaghan was pressured by the U.S. and by the right wing of his own party to accept a loan from the International Monetary Fund (IMF)" (Gillard, 2007).

Since 1969, a series of "Black Papers" which described government's serious financial problems, written by right-wing educationalists and politicians, were brought about by the worrying economic climate. The views presented in those "Black Papers" focused on the development of the progressive style in primary schools. Gillard (2007) claimed that The Black Paper writers were given ammunition by the "William Tyndale Affair". William Tyndale was a primary school in north London. In 1974, some of the staff introduced radical changes, and these changes were associated with an extreme form of romantic liberalism. The result was a violent dispute among staff and between some of the staff and the school managers. Local politicians and the local inspectorate became involved, From 1975 to 1976, there was a public inquiry into the teaching, organisation and management of the school (Davis, 2002). The "Great Debate" about education and Callaghan's speech at Ruskin College Oxford on 18 October 1976 (which was followed by various "the Department of Education and Science" and "Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education" initiatives regarding the establishment of the Assessment of Performance Unit and the beginning of mass testing by local education authorities) was deemed an intervention of the central government in schooling. The public image of teachers began to change throughout the 1970s. Callaghan's Ruskin speech, with its call for the accountability of teachers concerning the curriculum, was seen as the first stage in the development of TE, as discussed in numerous studies (Evans & Tomlinson, 1989; Goddard & Emerson, 1992; Poster & Poster, 1993). At that time, all the teachers' unions strongly opposed politicians having any role in what was taught in schools. "No education minister would propose changes without consulting the general secretary of the National Union of

Teachers" (NUT, cited from BBC news http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/4386373.stm). The former general secretary, Steve Sinnott, paid tribute to Lord Callaghan, commenting that:

> Perhaps if he had been Secretary of State for education he would have been able to deal better with the issues in the 'great debate...I think the debate needed to be one which engaged with everybody, including teachers and teachers' organisations. (Cited from http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/4386373.stm)

The economic crisis of 1973 - 1975, the Black Papers, and the William Tyndale affair were cited as factors which had an impact on the public image of teachers at that time and resulted in demands for an increase in the examination of public education.

Throughout the early 1980s, the Conservatives' desire to increase their control over the work of teachers was apparent. Sir Keith Joseph, the Secretary of State at the time, spoke of a need to assess teachers and to dismiss those unable to achieve an "acceptable" standard. The White Papers, *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983) and *Better Schools* (DES, 1985), stressed a need to manage teacher performance to raise standards in schools. Before evaluation was made legal, the 1983 White Paper *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983) put the emphasis on teacher assessment at a time of falling rolls. It emphasised the need to improve initial teacher training, and proposed that the Secretary of State should promulgate criteria against which all courses would be reviewed. "The paper also expresses the view that regular and formal evaluation of teachers is necessary..." (Kelly, 2001: 49). In *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983), the statement revealed:

> Concern for quality demands that...teachers fail to maintain a satisfactory standard of performance, employers must...be ready to use procedures for dismissal. (p.25)

This statement caused the dissatisfaction of teachers. Teachers, rightly or wrongly, saw evaluation as a means of drastically decreasing the teaching force. The issue of "ensuring teaching quality by teacher evaluation" was often discussed. Gunter claimed that the TE policy "has developed rapidly and unevenly during the 1980s and 1990s in England" (2001: 247).

At the North of England conference, Sir Keith Joseph (1984) intensified the debate by arguing that "the aim should be to remove such [under-performing] teachers from a profession where they can do such disproportionate harm..." (p. 144). This widely reported statement was rapidly picked up by the teachers' unions, and some of them threatened to boycott evaluation for nearly a decade thereafter. The aftershock was so fierce that Sir

Keith mitigated what he said in later speeches. His intention was deemed as a palliative but did little to mollify the teachers' outrage:

> I attach particular importance to the interesting and innovative work... in the important area of teacher assessment and in the schemes of collective self-assessment within the schools. (Joseph, 1984: 144)

In the early days of TE, there was some confusion between "assessment" (i.e. judgmental and summative) evaluation in the speech, and that which is developmental and formative. Sir Keith's reference to "collective self-assessment" was too vague to be helpful. This confusion over terminology continued to bedevil relationships between the DES and the teachers' unions. At a time when confusion and argument were at their peak, the DES belatedly but widely delegated the Suffolk LEA to conduct a pilot project for evaluation. The pilot project was conducted in six LEAs, and a report entitled "*Those Having Torches*" was published.

Sir Keith Joseph lectured at a conference in Chester in January 1985:

> To be fully effective an appraisal system would have to be complemented by better arrangements for the individual teacher's career development-including induction, in-service training... I am only concerned with the need to dismiss the very small number of incompetent teachers who cannot be restored to adequate effectiveness... I am concerned with the whole range of positive advantages that would flow from applying to the teacher force standards of management which have become common elsewhere. (cited from Ball, 1988: 292)

In February 1985, the Permanent Secretary at the Department of Education and Science (DES) pointed out that he wanted sound decisions on such matters as staff deployment, in-service training, promotion and career development, as well as a framework for helping schools and colleges to improve standards, set goals, and identify ways in which staff could achieve these communal goals. The fact that an appreciable number of schools and researchers (Bunnell & Stephens, 1984; Turner & Clift, 1985; Newman, 1985) were already engaging in staff appraisal as a foundation underpinning the government's design of TE systems is often overlooked. There was ample evidence that staff evaluation schemes were mushrooming (Bunnell & Stephens, 1984; Turner & Clift, 1985; Newman, 1985), but Newman claimed that no one appraisal can work for all. He also warned that it is difficult for a school to borrow an appraisal scheme from another school. Newman cautioned that if a national scheme were to be introduced, there needed to be sufficient flexibility to meet the different management styles and structures, different approaches to learning, and different staff experiences.

In response to the union threat to boycott evaluation, the language was toned down by Sir Keith Joseph, but in the White Paper, *Better School* (DES, 1985), the government's position remained resolute: better information about teacher competence was essential to improve teacher deployment and development and, ultimately, to facilitate the dismissal of those who continue to under-perform. In the same year, HMI produced a report, *Quality in School: Evaluation and Appraisal* (HMI, 1985), which was a consequence of a two-year survey of a number of LEAs and schools in which staff evaluation was taking place.

According to Gunter (2001), there were three broad positions with regard to the purpose of evaluation from the early 1980s and into the 1990s: instrumental performance appraisal, humanist appraisal, and critical appraisal. In the approach of instrumental performance, evaluation is about pursuing a school's outcomes, which can be achieved and measured. The humanist approach is developed by teachers' participation in the design and operation of the evaluation process. This is done through negotiation and agreed purposes. In the critical approach, evaluation emphasises teaching and learning as a means through which social injustices are understood and defeated by teachers and pupils.

6.2.2 Legislation

In 1989, the National Steering Group (NSG) restated the developmental purpose of appraisal from the 1986 Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) agreement and emphasised that "appraisal is an integral part of the management and support of teachers and must not be treated as an isolated exercise" (Bridges & Kerry, 1993: 141). Although the making of national regulations went through a stop–start process, the appointment of Kenneth Clarke as Secretary of State in the late 1990 saw a speedy imposition of a national framework (DES, 1991a, b). It was the Education (No. 2) Act 1986 that made evaluation a legal requirement.

> The Secretary of State may by regulations make provision for requiring LEAs [LAs] or such other persons as may be prescribed, to secure that the performance of teachers to whom the regulations apply... is regularly appraised in accordance with such requirements as may be prescribed.
>
> (DES: Education (No. 2) Act of 1986)

Further, the Education (School Teachers' Pay and Conditions of Employment) Order 1987 stated that head teachers were responsible for "Supervising and participating in any arrangements within an agreed national framework for the appraisal of the performance of teachers who teach in the school". [Regulation 4(8a)]

The Secretary of State for Education, Kenneth Baker (1987) argued that he did not prescribe the requirements, but that it was for the LEAs selected for the pilot scheme to advise him through the National Steering Group (NSG). Somewhat contradictorily, the Act was partly deemed as having had too many loopholes for comfort. In other words, it opened up the possibility for agencies other than LEAs to be made responsible for the evaluation procedures.

The next phase of evaluation was strongly influenced by political issues. In February 1987, in her address to the Industrial Society, the Minister of State, Angela Rumbold, assured people that sacking poor teachers was "no longer in anyone's mind". The provocative speech caused two of the largest teaching unions, the National Union of Teachers and the National Association of Schoolmasters, to refuse to serve on the National Steering Group of the six LA pilot projects for the whole of 1987, partly because a pay settlement had been imposed on the teaching profession. However, the Education Act 1988 began to dominate the attention of teachers and their representatives in the following year.

In 1989, the Secretary of State, John MacGregor, made a pragmatic decision that the introduction of the National Curriculum established by the Education Act 1988 should be the Government's highest priority. His successor, Kenneth Clarke, came under attack from opposition parties for the delay, so in December 1990, he countermanded MacGregor's decision in a letter to local education authorities, stating that "regular appraisal will help to develop the professionalism of teachers and improve the education of their pupils'. Hence, the Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulations 1991 embodied the law and the DES Circular 12/91 offered advice about how the exercise should be conducted. Such legislations should be seen alongside the increasing power of governors. The authority of the Secretary of State was promoted, and the shift was to make schools responsive to market forces, whilst teachers and LEAs were the losers (Bartlett, 2000).

6.2.3 The System of Teacher Evaluation in 1991

The 1991 Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulations [Department of Education and Science (DES), 1991a] aimed to enable teachers "to realise their full potential and to carry out their duties more effectively" [Regulation 4(2)]. According to *School Teacher Pay and Conditions Document* (1991), evaluation is part of a teacher's "professional duties", and teacher performance is directly linked to both "professional development and

career planning" and "those responsible for taking decisions about the management of school teachers" [Regulation 4(1)].

The aims of this regulation include 1) improving teachers' performance [Regulation 4(3a)], professional [Regulation 4(3b)] and career development [Regulation 4(3c)] for general teachers, 2) helping teachers having difficulties with appropriate guidance [Regulation 4(3d)], and 3) improve the management of the school [Regulation 4(3f)]. The regulations also present evaluation as a series of mandatory tasks which comprise classroom observation, interview with the evaluator, target setting and evaluation statement, with a two years cycle. While the evaluation process cannot be used for disciplining or dismissing a teacher [Regulation 4(4)], the evaluation statement may be utilised by "those responsible for taking decisions on the promotion, dismissal or discipline of school teachers or on the use of any discretion in relation to pay" [Regulation 14(1)].

Circular 12/91 provides guidance that 1) the appraisal should be based on a job description, 2) the appraiser should 'have a management responsibility' (Paragraph 21 p. 4) for the appraise, 3) the appraising body is maintained by a local education authority [1991, Regulation 2(a)], and 4) to help manage the process of an initial meeting, self appraisal and other data in addition to classroom observation could be part of an appraisal. The Circular stressed that an appraisal should be set within a management context:

> The school's objectives in a particular year should be linked with appraisal, so that, for example, professional development targets arising from appraisal may be related to agreed targets and tasks in the development plan. Similarly appraisal targets, when taken together, should provide an important agenda for action for the school as a whole. Targets set during appraisal should therefore meet the needs of the school as well as those of individual appraisees. Setting appraisal within the framework of school development should also ensure that targets are realistic and make the best use of available resources. (Circular 12/91 Paragraph 11)

6.2.4 The Post -1991 Period

The making of national regulations went through a stop–start process from 1988, but a change of the Secretary of State in late 1990 saw a quick shift from a voluntary system to the imposition of a national framework. LEAs' (and governing bodies for grant-maintained schools) schemes for appraisal strongly emphasised developmental systems (Gunter, 1999). By the mid 1990s, all 340,000 teachers in England and Wales had been through at least one evaluation since the 1991 Regulations. The process itself has been evaluated as follows: first, a research project was commissioned by the Department for

Education and Employment (DfEE) (Barber *et al.*, 1995); and second, a report by the Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED) based on HMI visits to schools and OfSTED Section 9 inspection reports were published in April 1996. This was then used in a consultation process led by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and OfSTED (OfSTED 1996). The capacity of appraisal to bring about change was researched in the mid 1990s. Barber *et al.* (1995) and Wragg *et al.* (1996) found general support for appraisal, and much successful work going on. Nevertheless, Barber *et al.* (1995) found that there was an 'implementation dip', and appraisal was not being given the attention it deserved, both in schools and nationally. Site-based management from 1988 increasingly put the emphasis on organisational development, and the Office for Standards in Education (OfSTED) was making demands for accountability in schools in such a way that less attention was given to teacher developmental appraisal from 1992 onwards.

The official review by OfSTED (1996), *the Appraisal of Teachers 1991-1996*, reported that teacher performance had not been well-supported through appraisal, and there was only a weak link between appraisal and improvement. Moreover, the connection between effective management and appraisal was still under-developed. In particular, the report raised a concern that performance-related pay and its link with appraisal needed review. It was noted that while Circular 12/91 had identified such a link as 'legitimate and desirable', schools tended to follow the appraising body's (LEA, or the Governors for a grant maintained school) recommendation not to make this link. Following consultation, OfSTED and the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) produced a summary report (TTA/OfSTED, 1996) which repeated the need for technical improvements, but mainly emphasised the importance of how appraisal was managed. The Report concluded that appraisal was 'functioning below its full potential' and justified its call for a review on the basis of a different context in 1996 as compared to 1991. Responses to this were summarised in a joint Report published by OfSTED and the TTA in June (TTA/OfSTED 1996). This report stressed the need for a more effectively designed and operationalised system, and went on to emphasise the importance of how it is managed in school. More resources are therefore not needed:

> In those schools where appraisal is a part of normal management strategies, [it] is consistent with a school's culture and style, dovetailed into its administrative structures and integrated with the other functions carried out in the school, it works without any extra resource requirements other than those normally necessary to secure well managed schools. (Paragraph 3.4, p. 6)

This is consistent with the views of successive governments in conceptualising appraisal as something that makes performance outcomes more secure through integrating teachers with priorities of improvement in schools. The Green Paper, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* (DfEE, 1998), builds on this discourse about establishing the appropriate systems within schools that will drive and enable external accountability for measuring educational standards.

6.2.5 Controversy of Appraisal

A common view which is evident in the literature from the early 1980s to the 1990s is that informal appraisal is ongoing, but there is a need for a formalised process (Metcalfe, 1985; Marland, 1986; Marsh & Scott, 1991). There are various debates about the nature of schools and the work of teachers. The tension within the educational literature lies in two areas: the skills and knowledge of individual teachers or the school's development plan, and how teachers can achieve relevant targets. The integration of teachers' performance with organisational goals is highly instrumental. Lusty (1983) argues that teachers have escaped accountability for too long: "the day of reckoning for teachers is speeding onward if it has not already arrived" (p. 377). This emphasises the tasks and systems. Stenning and Stenning (1984) present three objectives of appraisal: 1) to reward on the basis of merit; 2) to review performance and to remedy defects; and 3) to review teachers' potential, consider career planning and development. Such an approach operates according to the collection of objective data and measurement against criteria, and this serves as the groundwork for performance management in the late 1990s. This position has often supported a 'ring binder' approach to teacher appraisal, with checklists to tick and forms to fill in (Mathias & Jones, 1989). Appraisal is presented as value free and politically neutral; this facilitates the importation of 'generic' appraisal systems from the private sector (Trethowan, 1991; Pierce, 1996).

For those who take a humanistic approach, appraisal is seen as a professional entitlement that enables the individual to reflect, develop and hence improve the quality of teaching and learning. Teachers' control of the process is seen as vital through negotiation and agreed purposes (Selmes, 1986). As Wragg (1987) argues:

> it [appraisal] should be done with emphasis on peer support. Teachers should play a central part and be given the time to watch each other's lessons, at all levels, whether in schools or higher education. In other words, it should be collegial, rather than competitive. (p. 84)

Emphasis is placed on achieving job satisfaction and on the credibility of the system, not just with the public, but within the profession as well (Fidler & Cooper, 1988). What distinguishes this approach from those who focus on instrumental performance management is the emphasis on the subjective meaning of those who participate in the appraisal, and how it will lead to development only if teachers take ownership of, and believe in, the process.

In contrast, those who take a critical approach ask questions about the power structures underpinning policy intentions and prescribed practice, such as gender (Thompson, 1989; Bennett, 1992). This approach focuses on the nature and purposes of teaching. McBride (1989) points out that "given simple directions, most of us can make kitchen furniture from a flat pack. Teaching is not this kind of activity. Teaching is a practice." (p. 27) Eggleston (1979) argues that we should not be evaluating teachers, but rather, we ought to emphasise the area of teachers conducting research on teaching. In other words, the classroom is not a place to gather data for management decisions, but for research and development. This theme can be traced throughout the work of Montgomery (1985) and Isaac (1989). The former presented, tested and evaluated a model of appraisal rooted in classroom processes while the latter stressed the importance of teacher learning. Following this pedagogic legacy, Elliott (1991) is concerned about avoiding the import of appraisal models into educational institutions, particularly those 'which dispossess[es] the workforce of the power to control their occupational performance and futures' (p. 95). He is in favour of a two-tiered appraisal system. The first level is an action research process rooted in educational values, enabling teachers to reflect on and develop an understanding of how they identify themselves as educators. The second level demonstrates an ethical connection to the development and welfare of children.

Ball (1990) endorses the concern about increased managerialist control of teachers by stating that their work is being redefined in a way that enables it to be 'calculable, describable, and comparable' (p. 154). Ball (1990) uses Foucault's concept of 'moral technology' to conceptualise appraisal as a form of 'examination' in which power is exercised even in a potentially developmental process: 'the appraisees are encouraged to display their shortcomings, to seek out or identify appropriate therapeutic procedures, and to judge themselves and award their own punishment' (p. 161). Furthermore, Ball (1990) takes the discussion to a different analytical level, asking questions about those who are involved in the 'discourses of management and research fields like school effectiveness' (p.

165). He argues that this is a 'professional job creation' (p. 165) in which consultants and trained managers have access to certain types of knowledge that is used to devise procedures that conceptualise the teacher as a subordinate. Ball's work utilises theory from the broader social sciences to develop his critique. In addition, he gives teachers access to theory which can be used to analyse, interpret and explain their context and work through seeing the structural determinants of knowledge creation.

While a variety of positions have existed on the appraisal terrain, it is clear that those who inhabit the instrumentalist networks are in the ascendancy. By creating the climate that was easy for the government to dismiss developmental teacher appraisal and exclude particular research networks, as stated in the Green Paper (DfEE, 1998) humanist and critical knowledge workers are currently marginalised. Humanists are concerned about the failure to give developmental appraisal enough time to embed itself and make a difference to teaching and learning. However, this approach is rapidly disappearing through a combination of changes in the LEAs (Gunter, 1999), and the silence that can be induced by instrumental performance systems (Bennett, 1999; Gleeson & Gunter, 2001). Critical approaches remain vocal, are providing rigorous analysis, and present alternative approaches for educational change (Merson, 2000; Fielding, 2001; Gunter, 2001), but they are largely located in higher education and can therefore be written off as being 'irrational ... destructive and mad' (Ball, 1994: 44).

The NUT's former General Secretary, Doug McAvoy (1999), said:

> The result is a significant blow to the government...It gives the lie to government claims that teachers support its proposals. They do not. They regard them as divisive and damaging to the future of the profession. ...The government has failed to win the hearts and minds of teachers. Until it listens to the profession, it will be jeopardising its own aims for education. (cited from http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/342356.stm)

6.3 The Education (School Teacher Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2001

Throughout the 1980s and the first half of the 1990s, successive Conservative administrations attempted to employ greater control over teachers' performance. Thus the introduction of appraisal was seen as an initial move to assess teaching, thereby influencing the practice of all teachers. The aim of the education policy was to link teachers' performance to their pay. However teachers resisted the initial threat by the "Tories" (Bartlett, 2000), and appraisal was consequently abandoned as a limited measure

for the government, schools or teachers. With the election of New Labour in 1997, the aggressive position of previous Tory administrations has subsided. As Bartlett (2000) described, "all stakeholders are seen to be working together to raise standards in schools." (p.34)

6.3.1 The Risk of Education

The polarisation of finance became more significant when New Labour came to power in 1997. This was attributed to Thatcherism "Labour's huge majority, and the strength of its support across a wide social spectrum, gives the party the opportunity to heal the divisions created by Thatcherism" (TES, 1998). Besides the changes in economic policy, changes were expected through education reform to resolve the issue of destitution (TES, 1998). The new government stated that:

> ...[we] must do more to convince the poor and excluded it has not forgotten them...the Government's New Deal, its action to improve training and lifelong learning among adults, raise achievement in schools and give tax breaks to low income families were all geared to help the most disadvantaged. (TES, 1998)

Some risks in education were especially emphasised, including "the 'lag[ging] behind of language learning in the UK " (BBC, 2000a), increased violence among pupils (BBC, 2000b), parents' concern about pupils' behaviour in schools (Slater, 2000), a big gap in A-level candidates who come from private schools and state schools (Cassidy, 2000), and a high ratio of truancy, unruly classroom behaviour and expulsions (BBC, 1998a).

In addition to these risks in education, a number of crises (among teachers) were revealed to challenge the ability of crisis management of the new government. They are:

The number of applications for teacher training in secondary schools was almost 5,000 short in 1998 (BBC, 1998b) 10,000 extra staff were needed in 2000–2004 (Dean, 2000), and over 30,000 teachers leave each year (BBC, 2001).

According to a TES report, the Chief Inspector, Chris Woodhead, claimed that "up to 1 per cent of teachers could face dismissal in the next couple of years, but that is far less than the 15,000 incompetent teachers" (Hackett, 1999). According to the survey by the National Employers' Organisation for School Teachers, a total of 600 were sacked, retired or redeployed. Another 400 cases have yet to be resolved (ibid). 2,100 teachers were banned in the 12 months to March 31, 1997, and the department [DfES] has dealt with no fewer than 458 misconduct cases (Rafferty, 1998).

More than half of the teachers in the UK leave their jobs after 10 years of teaching experience. So the supply of teachers was irregular and there were poorer lessons from the teachers supplied (BBC, 2002). Nearly 2,000 newly-qualified teachers have not yet passed compulsory numeracy tests (Mansell, 2000).

"Only 69 of the 1,782 allegations of abuse made by children against NASUWT members in the past 10 years have led to convictions" (Guardian, 2004.04.15). Those false accusations mean that "parents misunderstand teacher's professionalism" and "parents hope to involve their children's education".

Teachers' work is all-embracing. Ken Shorey, head of Court Moor school in Fleet, stated that he routinely works up to 70 hours a week (Hoare, 1998). The average time of a teacher's work is 52 hours per week, whilst that for the head teacher is 60 hours. According to the TES (1998.04.10), teachers are described as "tired and stressed workers, [and] are less productive" (ibid).

To face these serious risks in education, the New Labour government designed numerous education reforms to remedy the situation. Simultaneously, it introduced the notion of professionalism into educational practice to promote effectiveness.

6.3.2 An Era of Professionalism

As with all education systems worldwide, the English education system has been subjected to rapid development. Since the reign of the New Labour government, some of these changes have been supported by methods borrowed from industrial or commercial activities, including performance management of individuals, (Peters *et al.*, 1999). Much research explored the contested nature of professionalism, yet there was still no consensus on what the term 'professional' means. The words 'profession' and 'professionalism' continue to be used in the literature despite their disputed meaning. In the twentieth century, professionalism became the basis of teacher regulation located in the shifting state–teacher relations (Grace, 1995). Teacher professionalism, as broadly described, inhabits a complex reality and consists of a range of abilities, behaviours and understandings. Some researchers explored these characteristics and claimed that teacher professionalism should include:

1) a body of specialist knowledge; a code of ethics; autonomy from influences which might negatively affect professional judgement (Danaher *et al.*, 2000);

2) a critical function which implies a duty to subject the profession to scrutiny and review (Tomlinson, 1995);

3) the development of the practical and affective components which are aspects of a sense of responsibility, duty, obligation, and accountability (Carr, 1992); and

4) a requirement for abilities across a range of organisational, social, managerial and presentational skills. (Mortimore & Mortimore, 1998)

To these may be added Eraut's views on the interplay of professionalism and accountability in increasingly more complex patterns (Eraut, 1994). A number of features of managerialism have been outlined (Pollitt 1990, Fergusson 1994, Clarke & Newman 1997). These are often associated with economic rationalism with ulterior motives. They include, on the one hand, the control over professionals by reasserting "management's right to manage", and on the other, communication of the notion that good management resides only in the private sector. This implies that the public sector is characterised by liberalism.

Another shift of the controlling feature is from managerialism to professionalism, which occurs "by giving them [teachers/schools] budgets or by setting them adrift as quasi-autonomous business units" (Hoggett, cited from Avis 1996: 109). In schools, this has led to a shift in control from the central government to schools, with power invested in the principal as the person responsible for regulating a particular institution, while the quality of education is simultaneously monitored by evaluation systems.

In September 2000, a system of performance management was introduced by statutory force into all state-maintained primary and secondary schools in England (DfEE, 2000a-d). *The Education (School Teacher Appraisal) (England) Regulations 2001* (http://www.legislation.hmso.gov.uk/si/si2001/20012855.htm) requires schools' governing bodies to ensure that the performance of all teachers (including the head teacher) is reviewed annually. The introduction of performance management into England's primary schools (schools with pupils aged 3–11) has been particularly controversial, not least because the very concept of performance management is so alien to the traditional cultures of these organisations, because they previously utilise the term of "appraisal".

6.3.3 Teacher Evaluation in 2001

The so-called "Performance Management in Schools" initiative has been described as the world's biggest performance management system (NAHT, 1999: 21; Mahony & Hextall, 2001: 182). It covered approximately 18,000 primary schools, 3,500 secondary schools, 1,100 special schools, 500 nursery schools, 23,000 head teachers, 400,000 teachers and an unknown number of ancillary staff. With a huge budget and the time and risk to teachers' morale and motivation, it is essential that the initiative's perceived effectiveness and appropriateness are investigated.

School governors conduct an annual performance review of head teachers with the assistance of an accredited adviser, while the performance review of teachers is done either by the head or, in the case of larger primary schools, a more senior teaching colleague, for instance a team leader.

Performance Management is an ongoing cycle, not an event. It involves three stages:

- Planning: team leaders discuss and record priorities and objectives with every teacher in their team. They discuss how progress will be monitored.
- Monitoring: the teacher and team leader keep progress under review throughout the cycle, taking any supportive action needed.
- Review: the teacher and the team leader review achievements over the year and evaluate the teacher's overall performance, taking into account his/her progress against the pre-discussed objectives.

The cycle should take place over a year (more frequently than previous regulations), linking with the school's plans for management and target setting. The precise timing of the cycle is a matter for discussion and agreement within each school. The head teacher will need to consider workload implications and how the cycle fits best with the school's other arrangements. After the first year, planning should flow naturally from the previous year's review.

As with head teachers, it is recommended that teachers receive between three and six formal objectives in the Planning stage (DfEE, 2000a), including at least one each for pupils' progress, professional development and management/leadership in the case of more senior teachers (DfEE, 2000a). The DfES published available guidelines and advice about the operation of teachers' performance management arrangements (DfEE, 2000a, b).

Schools may already use numerous methods to observe a teacher's development in the stage of the monitoring progress. Short informal discussions and classroom observation were strongly suggested. Those supportive actions ensure that the professional development is apt.

The stage of performance review offers teachers and team leaders an opportunity to reflect on the teacher's performance in certain structural ways, such as reviewing, discussing and confirming the teacher's essential tasks, understanding achievements and talking about areas for improvement and professional development.

It is also expected to introduce a performance-related element into teachers' pay. There are two pay scales for teachers: a lower scale for the less experienced and, for those who have proved themselves to be sufficiently competent, an upper pay spine. In order to allow progress from the lower to the upper pay scale, individuals with a minimum of four to five years of teaching experience are invited to supply evidence to the head teacher that they have achieved the "threshold" standards in a variety of areas, including their subject knowledge, teaching and assessment, pupils' progress, wider professional effectiveness and professional characteristics (DfES, 2001a). With regard to the performance-related element of teachers' pay, the Department (DfEE, 2000b) stated that if teachers on the lower pay spine are performing satisfactorily, they can expect a continuous annual increment. Teachers above the threshold will need to prove their performance through the annual review process to receive an increase of salary.

6.3.4 The Post-2001 Period

The UK performed poorly in international surveys of educational achievement throughout the 1980s and 1990s (Reynolds *et al.*, 1996). A variety of attempts to improve the overall educational outcome and to reduce the variation between schools by bringing ineffective schools up to the levels of the more effective has followed (Reynolds *et al.*, 2003). Generally, the New Labour government's attempts to remedy this include operating an educational market in which consumers, empowered to choose schools for their children and resourced with published performance data on the academic achievements of schools , are meant to "drive up" standards by their actions. Simultaneously, support for schools to respond positively to pressure has come from the central government providing guidance on what is effective school management and school level processes, together with some interventions to improve TE and professional development.

According to Smithers' report (2007: ii), England rose four places in the 2003 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) evaluation for primary school pupils(from 10th place to 6th place in Mathematics) on the basis of an improvement of 47 points in test scores. Blair's government claimed that these results were a vindication of his policies. Again this was in spite of the fact that the initial response rate was lower than that of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2003 study.

England came third in the international table in the 2001 Progress in International Reading Literacy (PIRLS) study, when, once again, initial participation rates were lower than the PISA 2003 study. The government argued that these good results were a consequence of its education reforms, including the National Curriculum and TE.

Although the results above might not be attributed to a single factor, i.e. TE, the New Labour government deems those achievements as results of their effort to develop the evaluation system.

6.4 The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006

To face the challenge of educational crises mentioned in the previous section, the New Labour government proposed three measures:

Changing the name of the government department: New Labour tried to foster "skill", especially employment skills, via the changed name of the Department for Education and Employment to the Department for Education and Skills in 2001. The Department of Education had six name changes since World War II. The final name given was the Department for Children, Schools and Families which emphasises social welfare and family care. The aforementioned changes appear to illustrate initial attempts at reforming education in Britain. These names point to the changing priorities of the government towards education.

Raising the educational budget and constituting a monitoring institution: The New Labour government hugely increased the educational budget in the first three years by an additional £9 billion. The areas supported include nursing education, vocational education, technological equipment, personal computers for teachers, and school evaluation. There was an annual increase of £180 for each pupil (Guardian, 2002.12.19). In 1998, a

subordinate section under the Department for Education and Employment was created to collect educational information. This serves to assist the Office with regard to Standards in Education.

Teacher education reform: In 1997 the Education White Paper, *Excellence in Schools* was announced. This Paper held the view that "teaching innovation is the core of education reform" and "the innovation of teacher education is the key of teaching innovation". The White Paper emphasised the importance of TE, advocating a positive correlation between teacher performance and teachers' pay, and that inadequate head teachers and teachers should be dealt with urgently. In July 1998, the *Teaching and Higher Education Act* was passed, and the Green Paper, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change*, was addressed in December. These Papers designed the big wave of teacher education reform, the most radical reform in the teaching profession since 1880 (DfEE 1999a).

6.4.1 Background of the Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006

Facing the crises of the educational level and the embarrassing situation of teachers, the New Labour government announced "Teaching: High status, high-standard" (DfEE) in 1997. The fundamental purpose for this wave of teacher reform was therefore stipulated. In September 1998, the Secretary of State wrote to all teachers that the main goal of the educational reform is to rebuild teachers' dignity (BBC, 2000.09.09). The Prime Minister, Tony Blair, further emphasised in his speech in January 2000 that "performance-related pay" can raise the rate of the passing threshold; its main purpose was to improve the social status of headmasters and teachers (BBC, 2000.01.02). "The tactics of "carrot" and "stick" are simultaneously used; the carrot is defined by "high rewards" and "supporting measures", while "punishment" and "getting involved with enterprises" characterise the "stick". Among some of the methods they use are 1) high rewards, 2) severe punishments, 3) involvement of enterprises in the education sector, and 4) sincerity to help teachers and so forth.

Since the Green Paper, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change,* the term "teacher appraisal" was substituted by "performance management". The latter effectively integrates the effects of TE and the idea of enterprise management, formatting an approach that aims to improve teachers' responsibilities, promote the level of teaching, and facilitate pupils' learning.

The term "performance management" emerged in the 1990s, but it came from the performance-related pay (PRP) in the 1980s. Implementing PRP, policy makers recognised that managers disseminate the concept that there is a close relation between performance and pay, simultaneously spreading "the attitude of respecting work" to the members of their organisation, gradually changing the organisational culture.

Hence, in England, the term "teacher appraisal" was replaced by "performance management" (Bubb & Hoare, 2001). The Department for Education and Skills defined "performance management" as "... a way of helping schools improve by supporting and improving teachers' work, both as individuals and in teams" (HMI, 2002).

In 2005, the Rewards and Incentives Group (hereafter abbreviated as RIG) framed a vision of a 'new professionalism' and first mentioned it in the 1998 Green Paper, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change.* New professionalism recognises the importance for teachers to maintain and improve their professional practice. It promotes professional development as an integral part of a teacher's everyday life.

By focusing on their practice and developing their expertise, teachers have better capabilities to help pupils achieve their potential, besides gaining personal job satisfaction and progressing in their careers. This is at the heart of the new professionalism and its relation to performance management.

6.4.2 The Process of Legislation

In the summer of 2007, the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) commissioned PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP (PwC) to undertake an independent evaluation of the *Making Good Progress* (MGP) Pilot. The MGP Pilot aims to respond to the challenge of continuing to raise educational achievement by focusing on progress and attainment in five key strands.

According to the Schools Minister, Jim Knight, "revised arrangements to teachers' and head teachers' performance management ... will support ongoing professional development and help to secure better outcomes for pupils and will be in place by Autumn 2007" (DfCSF, 2006, cited from http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/pns/DisplayPN.cgi?pn_id=2006_0135). He also claimed that there would be an updated schedule for the introduction of performance management requirements for schools and local authorities.

The English Government's Five-Year Strategy for Children and Learners constituted plans for re-focusing performance management arrangements for teachers and head teachers in 2005. Revised arrangements for performance management were included in these plans, reflecting the wider aim of creating new professionalism for teachers. Such plans were published for consultation in June 2005. The proposals were broadly welcomed, but feedback from local authorities early in the consultation highlighted concerns about introducing the revised arrangements in the autumn term. This view was reinforced by various responses to the consultation. It was evident that schools and local authorities were keen to get the introduction of the revised arrangements right, and therefore needed more time to prepare.

Considering the outcome of the consultation and the advice of the Rewards and Incentives Group (RIG) social partners, ministers agreed that implementation of the revised arrangements for teachers' performance management would be postponed until Autumn 2007. The revised regulations and guidance were still published as planned in Autumn 2006 to ensure that schools and local authorities had as much time as possible to plan and make preparations in the academic year. The Training and Development Agency for Schools was supporting the implementation and workshops during that term, providing guidance and other forms of assistance for schools.

From the official viewpoint, schools and local authorities had the opportunity to ensure that all teachers and head teachers were empowered and confident to engage fully with performance management to develop their skills and careers under the revised arrangements. This includes better planning at the start of the cycle and greater transparency, as well as consistency and fairness in assessments at the end of the cycle. It also provides improved access to continuing professional development and other support needed to carry out their jobs effectively.

The revised professional standards for teachers set out what is expected of teachers throughout their careers. These provide a backdrop to performance management discussions.

6.4.3 Teacher Evaluation in 2006

The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006 differed from previous regulations, in that it included teachers and head teachers, but did not cover school support staff. Revised arrangements are instrumental to the development

of the new professionalism agenda. Their purpose was to develop a culture whereby teachers/head teachers feel confident and empowered themselves to participate fully in performance management, as described by RIG in their submission in May 2005. Those who manage staff engage in a professional dialogue with them, respect them as professionals, make decisions about their work and contribute to an open, equitable and fair meeting. Professional development should be an ongoing part of everyday activities, not a separate activity adding to teachers' workload. There is an entitlement and duty to engage in the Career Professional Development (CPD) which is effective and relevant to an individual's professional development, career progression and aspirations.

The development of more effective arrangements for performance management is being taken forward as part of the development of the new professionalism for teachers, as described by the RIG. Performance management was defined by the Department for Children, Schools and Families as "the process for assessing the overall performance of a teacher or head teacher, in the context of the individual's job description and the provisions of the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document (STPCD), and making plans for the individual's future development in the context of the school's improvement plan" (teachernet, 2008). Professional standards provide the backdrop for discussions about performance and future development. Such standards define the professional attributes, knowledge, understanding and skills for teachers at each career stage. Professional development opportunities support the achievement of objectives and the furthering of one's career.

The governing body of the school should be responsible for ensuring that teachers' performance is managed and reviewed according to the performance management policy (2006, Regulation 8[1]). The reviewer is delegated by the head teacher, who would be best placed to manage and review the teacher's performance (2006, Regulation 11[3]). The performance of every teacher in a school should be managed and reviewed on an annual basis (2006, Regulation 12[1]). The total period of classroom observation should not exceed 3 hours per cycle (2006, Regulation 17[4]). The full timeline of the TE process is structured as in Figure 5.1 (shown on the next page).

The meeting is conducted by the reviewer with the reviewee, by considering and determining the objectives, performance criteria, classroom observation, other evidence, support, training and development needs. Generally, contribution to the pupils' progress forms the main objectives. Performance criteria are set against which progress will be

judged. In classroom observation, the amount and focus are discussed. In addition, other evidence that can be gathered to help assess a teacher's performance is identified. Further, the support that will be provided to help the reviewee achieve the relevant performance criteria will be stated. Also, training and development needs and the actions taken to address them will be mentioned. In the planning meeting, the reviewer and reviewee must agree on the arrangement of TE.

Classroom observation for performance management is limited to no more than 3 hours per cycle, but it is not necessary to use all 3 hours. Paper feedback must be given within a fixed number of days of the observation. The protocol for classroom observation must be built by the authority and be included in the Performance Management policy.

If the reviewee is dissatisfied with his/her review statement, s/he can add comments or appeal about the results. The final results and any pay recommendations are recorded in the statement by 31st October.

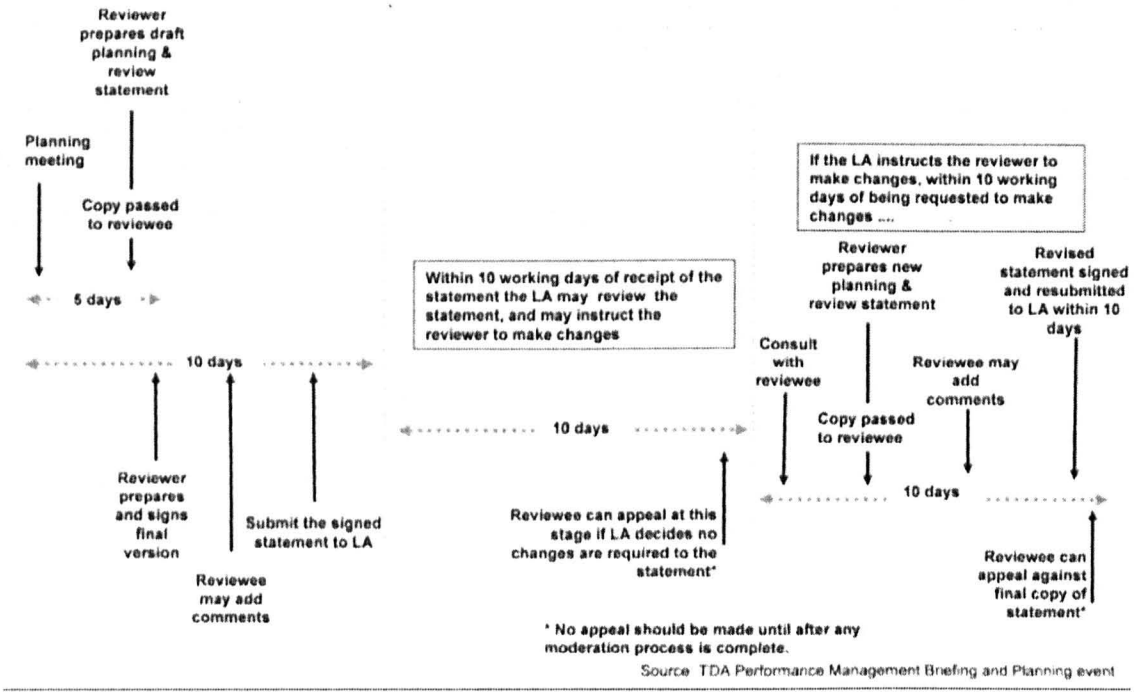

Figure 6-1: Process and Timings-Timeline for Agreeing on the Planning Meeting Statement (cited from www.tda.gov.uk/upload/resources/ppt/pm_briefing_for_unattached_teachers.ppt)

The role of the LA is to establish the Authority's Performance Management policy, monitor the operation and outcome of performance management arrangements, and review the policy annually. Also, the LA ensures that the content of all teachers' planning and

review statements are drafted such that one is able to achieve a satisfactory work/life balance. It also takes action in relation to appeals in line with the authority's policy.

6.4.4 Teacher's Perspectives on Performance Management

The Education (School Teacher Performance Management) (England) Regulations 2006 was supported by numerous unions, including the Association of School and College Leaders (ASCL), the Education Union (ATL), National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT), National Employers' Organisation for School Teachers (NEOST), and the Professional Association of Teachers (PAT), but not the National Union of Teachers (NUT). This regulation is more carefully revised and implemented: a pilot experiment and teachers' reflections are used as meta-evaluation (DfCSF, 2006). According to the Consultation's final report (DfES, 2006), a majority of the educators consider that well-structured performance management arrangements were fundamental to raising standards in schools. 94% of the respondents agree or partly agree with the proposals for appointing performance reviewers for teachers and head teachers. The pre-meeting which discusses how performance will be assessed is a significant phase; it obtained 84% agreement, with only very few disagreements. Those who disagreed thought that it was crucial for both parties to be totally clear about the criteria which they are confident about, and feel that it is fair. Some respondents said that reviewers had to accept a training that included 1) setting meaningful and measurable objectives, 2) effective classroom observations, 3) knowledge of teacher standards, 4) knowledge of teacher pay and conditions, and 5) identifying CPD needs and provision to understand the whole performance system. From this official survey, most respondents revealed positive perceptions of performance management arrangements.

I had two opportunities to make formal visits to local schools, and was fortunate to be able to observe a primary school because my son was studying there for a year. I had 7 conversations with the following people: two head teachers, one deputy head teacher, and four teachers, In addition, I also conducted a formal interview with a teacher. The interviewee rated TE highly. He recognised that it "identifies mutually for both the school and teachers, and will benefit them through a regular system that sets forward a series of targets to be achieved", while the other educators just consider TE to be "crazy" because there is a huge amount of extra work for forefront educators to do. In contrast, a head

teacher told me that "both myself [I] and my Deputy do not have a very positive view of TPM".

The polarisation of teachers' perspectives might be explained by the "Hawthorne Effect", which is a form of reactivity whereby subjects improve an aspect of their behaviour because they know that they are measured experimentally (simply in response to the fact that they are being studied), The worst anti-authority behaviour will be given some in-depth explanation in the next chapter.

6.5 Summary

Much inspiration can be drawn from English experiences of TE. They offer some insights into the TE policy in the Taiwanese context.

Since 1969, a series of "Black Papers" resulted in many difficulties and the need for education reform permeated the whole of England "The Great Debate" revealed the government's determination for education reform. The economic crisis of 1973–1975, the Black Papers and the William Tyndale affair called for increasing scrutiny of public education, and the government was driven to undertake education reform. The issue for policy makers was to clearly define a "better education quality".

The William Tyndale affair, in which the staff introduced radical changes associated with an extreme form of romantic liberalism (Davis, 2002), stimulated the discussion of professionalism in England. The issue of professionalism involves keeping a balance between teachers' authority/freedom and their responsibility/ethics. The problem of maintaining such a balance was described in Section 1.1.2. The measure provided by LA can offer an insight into ways of dealing with related issues of conflict between teachers' authority and responsibility in Taiwan.

The Conservatives wanted to increase their control in 1980s to introduce education reform. The White Papers, *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983) and *Better Schools* (DES, 1985), stressed a need to manage teacher performance to raise standards in schools, and to set the agenda for the reform strategies via public discourse. Much relevant research, pilot studies, green/white papers, conferences and websites ensured that all those measures were discussed publicly, and that common views were reached to formulate the TE policy. This policy underwent some rapid development during the 1980s and 1990s in England.

After the process of legislation, TE was implemented throughout England in 1991. Its implementation was assessed by means of its effectiveness, usefulness, and accuracy, and then enacted by a newer regulation in 2001 and a revised version in 2006.

The TE policy in England has been undergoing gradual and moderate development, although this sometimes triggered the NUT's dissatisfaction. The policy makers stated and explained their policies clearly when they were announced. Although such policies reflected mainstream views, it should be noted that the minorities' views must be respected as well. However, a majority of people tend to be silent about the public policy. The views of the minority are voices that spoke on behalf of the most important people or some interest groups. It can be a good inspiration for Taiwan.

The focus is on the empowerment of the teacher when formative evaluation is implemented, while accountability is emphasised in summative evaluation. Formative evaluation aims to improve a teacher's teaching quality and career development, hence it is a professional issue. The evaluator should be a professional in education. Summative evaluation manages and controls the quality of education in practice, and is based on managerialism and accountability. Thus it is a political issue. Evaluators should involve relevant stakeholders in the evaluation process. In England, the evaluator is the teacher's line manager in school who is more aware of the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. Parents' views are included when there is a school inspection. The teaching profession emphasises teachers' authority and freedom based on their responsibility and educational ethics.

The role of evaluators is different at each stage. The appraising body is maintained by a local education authority [1991, Regulation 2(a)] in 1991. However, in 2001, the responsibility of evaluation became the duty of the governing body [Regulation 5(1)]; they appointed two to three governors as evaluators [Regulation 6(1)]. The head teacher then decides the suitable evaluator for managing and reviewing a teacher's performance (2006, Regulation 11[3]) in 2006. From this development, it can be found that the role of the evaluator is closer to that of the teacher, so that s/he can have a better understanding of the teacher's background and be familiar with the evaluation context.

Further, the tactics of "carrot" and "stick" are used at the same time; the carrot is defined by "high rewards" and "supporting measures", while "punishment" and "getting involved with enterprises" characterise the "stick". The educational White Paper (DfEE,

2001b) stipulates that the passing rate in every school should be up by 1/4 in the five subjects of GCSE in 2005. Schools which do not reach the standard will be taken over by the LEA and business. However, it was shown that the questions asked by English teachers are different from those in Taiwan, so the purpose of TE in the latter is quite different. England emphasises improvement, while Taiwan focuses on promotion; in other words, the English measure is to control the quality, while the Taiwanese are interested in developing professionals.

Nevertheless, the study of how teachers are assessed in England can serve as an inspiration for Taiwan, particularly during the enactment of the evaluation policy in Taiwan. However, the extent to which this can be relevant depends heavily on the cultural context. Hence, the next chapter specifically explores the development of TE in Taiwan.

Chapter 7 Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan

7.0 Introduction

While the previous chapter discussed the development of teacher evaluation in England, this chapter focuses on the development of teacher evaluation in the Taiwanese context. This exploration facilitates our understanding of the role of TE in the teacher professional development in Taiwan's history.

This chapter is divided into three sections. First, a detailed critical analysis of the policy development of teacher performance management in Taiwan since 1947 is carried out. Secondly, I analyse three experiments of teacher evaluation performed in Taipei City, Kaohsiung City, and Taipei County (by the respective local governments), all of which were successful. This encouraged the Ministry of Education (MoE) to launch a nationwide experiment of teacher evaluation in Taiwan, and I shall describe this experiment in the final section. Data used in this chapter were gathered through policy documents.

Taiwan is characterised by a cosmopolitan society; it is a huge melting pot of cultures. From a historical viewpoint, it is a confluence of Japanese and Chinese cultures. Various activities to assess teachers' performance existed either in ancient Chinese history or during the Japanese colonisation, so to merely ascribe "teacher evaluation in Taiwan" to either of these cultures would not be entirely appropriate. In 1947, the first statute to assess teacher achievement in Taiwan was formally initiated; hence, it is apt for me to trace the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan from 1947 until the present day.

7.1 The Assessment of Teacher Achievement in Taiwan

The concept and relevant activities of evaluation have a long history in Chinese culture. However, a formal and structural system of evaluation has only been developed in Taiwan since 1947.

Four thousand years ago, the ruler, Yao (堯), evaluated whether Shun (舜) had the ability to be king. King Yao arranged for his two daughters to be married to Shun in order to examine how he organised a family with two wives. This is a type of evaluation, and it shows that such an activity has 4,000 years of history in China.

In the official education system and the royal family, "knowledge" and "character" were the most important indicators for selecting teachers, especially the "Tai-Shi" (太師, the Emperor's teacher), and the "Tai-Tzu-Shao-Shi" (太子少師, the prince's teacher).

In general, the criteria for choosing teachers were dependent on the market demand. For example, in the Spring and Autumn Period (Chunqiu shidai 春秋時代, 770 – 476 B.C.), the doctrine of the Legalists (fajia 法家) met the King's idea of government: teachers were selected based on their ability to deliver the "doctrinal philosophy of the Legalists" and the "concept of being law-abiding". In the official and private education system, "knowledge" and "character" have been the most important criteria of teacher evaluation in Chinese traditional culture for thousands of years. However, neither is this sort of evaluation a precise process, nor is it a convincing standard.

In 1947, teacher evaluation and a formal systematic teacher performance evaluation were first introduced in primary and secondary schools in Taiwan. This decree went through nine revisions. After Taipei City was upgraded as a municipality directly under the jurisdiction of the Central Government in 1971, the MoE stipulated a new Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment for the whole country. This was done to avoid inconsistent standards between the province and the cities. Such a regulation has been implemented until 2005, from when a great revision was made and renamed the *Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment below Public High School.* The assessment is summative evaluation, the result of which would have an impact on teachers' salaries and promotion. However, with economic growth and a more widespread parental concern about the education of the younger generation, teachers are no longer as highly esteemed. In order to gain public recognition, teachers nowadays will have to accept a more transparent public evaluation. In order to develop teachers' professionalism and to improve teaching quality, the MoE devised The Plan for Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development for a three-year trial period, from the academic year of 2006 to the academic year to 2009. The trial plan is independent of the "achievement assessment" which influences promotion or salary increase. It emphasises formative evaluation of teachers' professional development.

7.1.1 The Development of the Assessment Regulation in Taiwan

After 1945, the economic development and social progress in Taiwan led to urgent demands for better education. Hence, the government planned and structured policies to

popularise education. As a consequent of greater educational opportunities for the population, there was an increase in the number of teachers year by year. The government believed that such an increase made it necessary to implement an evaluation system that was similar to the one used to assess civil servants. The objectives were described in The Regulation of Civil Servants Assessment (1947), namely to analyse teachers' performance at work annually, reward outstanding teachers, and assure the quality of education.

Upon consultation of the Regulation of Civil Servants' Assessment (1947) and the relevant decrees, administrative commissioners of the Taiwan Province issued the Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teacher and Administrative Staff in Schools of All Levels (1947) on 8th January 1947. The decree had been formally implemented in Taiwan Province since the academic year of 1946. Its main content is summarised below (the Communiqué of the Administrative Commissioner's office of Taiwan Province, 1947).

Before July 1971, Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teachers and Administrative Staff in Schools of all Levels was implemented in all schools in the country. To match the revision of The Regulation of Civil Servants' Assessment, Taiwan Province's Government decided to revise the former regulation. In 1970, Taipei City issued The Assessment Method for Teachers and Administrative Staff of Municipal Schools of All Levels in Taipei, but there were no suitable or relevant methods of assessment for national schools. To avoid different assessment criteria between schools in the provinces and those in the cities, the MoE invited scholars, the representative of the Education Department of Taiwan Province's Government, and the representative of the Department of Education of Taipei City's Government to discuss the idea of a system that could be suitably applied to the whole country. On 21st July 1971, The Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment was announced. This is the first evaluation regulation formally constituted by the Taiwanese government. Assessment of school teachers and administrative staff was then started (MoE, 1971).

The previous regulation, which had been implemented for 24 years, stopped upon the declaration of the aforementioned regulation. There are 26 clauses in this regulation, and they include issues of general provisions, secondary and primary school teachers, administrative staff in schools of all levels, restriction of pay increase, ordinary evaluation, the procedure of evaluation, and supplementary provisions. A brief summary of this regulation is provided below (MoE, 1971).

The present teacher achievement assessment, the Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment below Public High School, was revised based on the Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment. This regulation was announced by the MoE (2005) Reference number 0940128615C [教育部台(94)參字第 0940128615C 號令], there are 24 articles in total.

Article 21 of the *Law of Senior High School* states that:

> The Education Superintendent's Administrative Organisation (ESAO) should execute an annual teacher achievement assessment in senior high schools that are under the jurisdiction of the organisation. The assessment results, reward and punishment, recruitment of assessment committee and its responsibility, the assessment procedure and other relevant issues are stipulated by the ESAO.

The 10th article of the *Law of Vocational School* describes that:

> The ESAO should execute an annual achievement assessment for head teachers and teachers in vocational schools which are under the jurisdiction of the organisation. The assessment results, reward and punishment, recruitment of assessment committee and its responsibility, the assessment procedure and other relevant issues are stipulated by the MoE.

Article 18 of the *Law of Primary Education* mentions that:

> The employment of the head teacher, director, and teachers in primary schools (elementary schools and junior high schools) is regulated according to other laws. Regulations for recruitment, training, registration, examination, transfers, further study (development) and rewards/punishments are stipulated by the MoE. Head teachers, directors, and teachers in public elementary schools and junior high schools (primary schools and secondary schools) should accept the achievement assessment. The assessment results, reward and punishment, recruitment of assessment committee and its responsibility, the assessment procedure and other relevant issues are stipulated by the MoE.

In order to make the laws above consistent, the Government revised *The Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment below Public High School* to promote its implementation. This regulation is currently being implemented.

7.1.2 Comparison of Three Regulations

Regarding these three regulations, Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teacher and Administrative Staff in Schools of all Levels (1947) (hereafter abbreviated as TPATASS), the Regulation of Teacher and Administrative Staff Achievement Assessment (1971) (hereafter abbreviated as RTASAA) and the Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment below Public High School (2005) (hereafter abbreviated as RTAAPHS), each regulation has its own developmental background, and each was described in the previous

sub-section to represent the three historical segments of Taiwan's history, namely before, within, and after the lifting of the Martial Law.

Subject of Evaluation

In *TPATASS* (1947), the evaluatee is the teacher and administrative staff members who teach or work in the province, county, and municipal schools at all levels, and has held the job for more than one year. The same is stipulated in *RTASAA* (1971), whilst the focus of evaluation is on teachers in *RTAAPHS* (2005).

Content of Evaluation

The content of evaluation includes "work" (工作), "knowledge" (學識) and "manner and behaviour" (操性) in *TPATASS* (1947). It was expanded into "teaching", "service", "morality" and "administrative record of reward and punishment" in *RTASAA* (1971). The content of evaluation in *RTAAPHS* (2005) consists of "teaching", "discipline and counselling", "service", "morality", "administrative record of reward and punishment".

All contents of evaluation should accurately record the assessment results and submit them to the ESAO to decide on reward or punishment. The rewards for teachers and administrative staff include *praise* (嘉獎), *merit* (記功), and *great merit* (記大功), whilst the reprimands include *demerit* (申誡), *offence* (記過), and *serious offence* (記大過). In the annual evaluation at the end of the year, the merits and demerits can compensate for each other.

Results of Evaluation

The evaluation results in *TPATASS* (1947) are divided into five classes, as shown in Table 7-1.

Table 7-1: Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teacher and Administrative Staff in Schools of All Levels

Rank	*Overall scores*	*Incentive*	*Punishment*	*Note*
1st class	*Above 80 points*	*Salary upgrade and reward*		*Those receiving the highest salary are given a one-month bonus of their original salary*
2nd class	*70—79 points*	*Salary upgrade*		*Those receiving the highest salary are given a one-month bonus of their original salary*
3rd class	*60—69 points*	*The same salary*		*minimum requirement*
4th class	*50—59 points*		*Reduction in salary*	*Those who receive the minimum wage to maintain the original salary payment*
5th class	*Below 50 points*		*Dismissal*	

Source: The Communiqué of the Administrative Commissioner's office of Taiwan Province (1947)

The minimum requirement is a total score of above 60 points (3rd class). It was divided into two parts, incentive and punishment, in *RTASAA* (1971). The incentive is composed of three levels, according to Article 4 (Clauses 1, 2 and 3) of the regulation (see Table 7-2). The punishment includes discontinuing employment (不續聘), temporary termination of employment hiring (停聘) and dismissal (解聘).

Table 7-2: Results of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment

Rank	*Incentive*	*Punishment*	*Note*
Article 4 (Clause 1)	*Salary upgrade and reward*		*Those receiving the highest salary are given a one-month bonus of their original salary*
Article 4 (Clause 2)	*Salary upgrade*		*Those receiving the highest salary are given a one-month bonus of their original salary*
Article 4 (Clause 3)	*The same salary*		*Those who receive the minimum wage will maintain the original salary payment*
Punishment		*Termination of employment*	
Punishment		*Temporary termination of employment*	
Punishment		*Dismissal*	

Source: Regulation of Teacher and Administrative Staff Achievement Assessment (1971)

In *RTAAPHS* (2005), the stipulation of evaluation content is similar to the *RTASAA* (1971), the differences between these provisions is that the criteria are more refined criteria in *RTASAA* (1971).

Procedures of Evaluation

Both *RTAAPHS* (2005) and *RTASAA* (1971) provide the evaluation procedure in two phases, i.e. preliminary evaluation and re-evaluation. The evaluation process in *RTASAA* (1971) can be divided into five steps, namely preliminary evaluation (初核), re-evaluation (覆核), approval (核定), notification (通知), and implementation (執行).

The evaluation committee implements the preliminary evaluation, while the head teacher manages the re-evaluation. This was stipulated in all three regulations. Core members and the other members in the committee are appointed by the head teacher in *TPATASS* (1947) and *RTASAA* (1971), but they are elected by teachers in the school in *RTAAPHS* (2005).

Comparison

The three regulations, *TPATASS* (1947), *RTASSAA* (1971) and *RTAAPHS* (2005) are compared in Table 7-3.

Table 7-3: Comparison of the Three Regulations of Teacher Achievement Assessment

	Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teachers and Administrative Staff in Schools of all Levels (1947)	*Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff 's Achievement Assessment (1971)*	*Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment Below Public High School (2005)*
Evaluatees	*Teachers* *Administrative staff*	*Teachers* *Administrative staff*	*Teachers*
Content	*Work* *Knowledge* *Manner and behaviour*	*Teaching* *Service* *Morality* *Administrative record of reward and punishment*	*Teaching* *Discipline action and Counselling* *Service* *Morality* *Administrative record of reward and punishment*
Results	*5 classes; required to achieve 3rd class and above (see Table 7-1)*	*3 levels of incentive and 3 levels of punishment (see Table 7-2)*	*3 levels of incentive* *3 levels of punishment*
Procedures	*Preliminary evaluation,* *re-evaluation*	*Preliminary evaluation,* *re-evaluation*	*Preliminary evaluation,* *re-evaluation* *approval,* *notification* *implementation*
Revisions	*9 times*	*10 times*	*1 time (so far)*

Organised by the researcher

From Table 7-3, the development of the *Assessment of Teacher Achievement* (ATA) in Taiwan can be found as follows:

1) The development of its legislation is increasingly refined. For example, the content of assessment consisted of "work", "knowledge" and "manner and behaviour" in 1947, but we can see a greater focus on such affairs as teaching, discipline action and counselling about 58 years later. Punishments also appeared more and more specific, with such levels as "termination of employment", "temporary termination of employment" and "dismissal".

2) The process of assessment also illustrated a greater tendency towards democracy. In 1947, the top-level administrative director and personnel director were core members; the rest of them (2 – 3 people) were appointed by the head teacher. In the 2005 regulation, there were many more members (9 – 17) in the committee, and more members were elected by teachers (except the Directors of Educational Administration, Student Affairs, Counselling, Personnel and a teacher representative).

3) Although these regulations are democratised or refined, they are still unable to meet the needs of teacher professional development. The key process of assessment only involved a committee meeting, and did not include observation, interview, self-reflection, and so on. Teachers were not able to perceive the relevance and benefits of the evaluation.

7.1.3 Discussion

Taiwan Province's Assessment of Teacher and Administrative Staff in Schools of All Levels was first formulated in 1947, and was revised nine times (1949 - 1967). In July 1971, the new regulation, the Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment, was formulated. This regulation has also received numerous revisions (ten times) between 1985 and 2005. The final assessment of teacher achievement, the Regulation of Teacher Achievement Assessment below Public High School, was formulated in 2005, and is currently implementing. It aimed to use teacher performance as a basis for pay rise or upgrade. However, this was not formulated based on such contemporary theories as the "Teaching Knowledge Theory", "Teacher Efficiency Theory", "Teacher Quality Theory", "Reflection Theory", "Teacher Empowerment", "Professional Development Theory", and "Total Quality Management". Numerous studies

(Wang Wen-Ke, 1987; Chang De-Jui, 1992; Chang Hui-Chun, 1988; Huang Yu-Cheng, 1983; Xie Wen-Quan, 1993) claim that there are serious deficiencies in the implementation of The Regulation of Teachers' and Administrative Staff's Achievement Assessment, particularly with regard to the criteria of evaluation, because they are: 1) not clear and accurate enough to evaluate, 2) too tight and inflexible, and 3) unable to embrace all of a teacher's workload into a precise evaluation project.

On the organisation of evaluation, the ATA shows the following weaknesses: 1) it fails to be pluralistic, 2) the evaluation is done subjectively (only by the committee), 3) it fails to project 'openness' in terms of its procedure, 4) it is unsatisfactory when assessing the record in ordinary time, 5) it has a low proportion of teacher representatives, and is therefore unable to represent the voice(s) of the whole school, and 6) it gives too much authority to the head teacher.

With regard to the results of evaluation, the following deficiencies have been identified: 1) too much emphasis is placed on the promotion of grade and salary, with such awards as bonus, 2) the punishment of not having an increment in salary is too passive, and 3) the results failed to be efficiently used to improve teaching quality.

Hence, we find such researchers as Chang (2000; 2004) stating that the regulation in Taiwan is irrelevant and cannot facilitate teachers' professional development and improve students' learning.

Based on the points described above, we can see that the concept of teacher evaluation still remains at its embryonic stage in Taiwan. However, this does not mean that Taiwan ignores teacher performance or lacks the implementation of a relevant evaluation. For example, we can observe the efforts of Taiwan's administrative leader and the MoE with regard to their respective efforts in establishing the regulations in 1947 and 1971. However several scholars, such as Wang Wen-Ke (1987), Chang De-Rui (1992), Chang Hui-Chun (1988), Huang Yu-Cheng (1983), and Xie Wen-Quan (1993) believe that the current regulation of ATA in Taiwan is irrelevant and cannot promote teachers' professional development. There are three educational experiments of TE executed by local governments which are noteworthy. They were implemented by the Kaohsiung City Government, Taipei City Government and Taipei County Government respectively. These experiments will be discussed in Section 7.2.

7.2 Some Experiments of Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan

The method of ATA has gone through numerous revisions and renaming. The purpose of implementing ATA is to evaluate the quality of a teacher's teaching, and to be regarded as the basis for a salary increase or promotion. However, when considering the influence of the teaching knowledge theory, teacher's efficiency theory, teacher's quality theory, teacher empowerment, professional development theory, and accountability, the method of ATA seems unable to promote teachers' professional development in order to improve the effectiveness of students' learning.

The programme of teacher evaluation has been launched in Taipei City Government, Kaohsiung City Government, and Taipei County Government because of their views of the weaknesses and insufficiencies of ATA. It is hoped that this will enhance the professional knowledge and skills of teachers in the County or City. The MoE followed this by propelling the Plan to Subsidise the Experiment of Teachers' Professional Development Evaluation in 2005 in order to assist and promote teachers' professional development and accomplishment and improve the teaching quality.

7.2.1 The Development Background of Three Local Experiments

The local governments of Taipei City, Kaohsiung City and Taipei County were dissatisfied with the current ATA, so each of them conducted their own TE respectively. Taipei City Government instituted the Mentor Teacher System. Kaohsiung City Government conducted the Teacher Professional Evaluation. Taipei County Government implemented the Teaching Professional Evaluation.

Taipei City

To encourage teachers in secondary and primary schools to cooperate, communicate, exchange views and carry out action research, Taipei's former Mayor, Ma Ying-Jiu (馬英九), devised a Mentor Teacher System in the White Paper of Education in Taipei. The Taipei City Government implemented Mayor Ma's educational policy soon after and this helped to improve the overall quality of education. Further, the Government planned to introduce the Mentor Teacher System in order to "reduce the burden of teaching to enhance teacher capability" in 1999. Hence, the Taipei City Government selected teacher representatives from its municipal secondary and primary schools, representatives of school administrators, scholars and experts to hold a meeting on 2nd April 1999 for the

purpose of "establish[ing] a teacher mentoring scheme entrusted to the Taipei Municipal Teachers College with the support and assistance of the Union of Teachers in Taipei" (Chang De-Rui *et al.*, 2000). After the meeting, the Taipei Municipal Teachers College (now called Taipei Municipal Education University) resolved to carry out the preliminary planning of the mentor teacher system. They completed a research paper on 26th August 2000 and drafted *An Experiment of Devising the Mentor Teacher System below High School in Taipei City* as a basis for the decree that is used to implement the Mentor Teacher System (Chang De-Rui *et al.*, 2000; Chang De-Rui *et al.*, 2002). The results of this survey showed that 80% of the teachers agree to introduce the system at school.

In the system, the mentor teacher's coaching targets are practical teachers, new teachers, teachers who voluntarily applied to be coached and those who are asked to accept coaching. Mentor teachers must have more than eight years of teaching experience (they can add up their experiences of teaching in both primary and secondary schools) to take on tutoring.

Later, the Bureau of Education of the Taipei City Government followed the suggestions of the research paper and started an experiment. The Taipei Municipal Educational University's experimental primary school was chosen as the first school for this purpose in 2001. Because the experiment was very successful, in June 2002, a total of ten schools (6 primary schools, 2 secondary schools, 1 high school and the aforementioned experimental school) participated in this experiment.

Kaohsiung City

In order to improve teachers' teaching and develop their profession in primary schools in Kaohsiung, the City Government released *The Draft of Implementing Teaching Evaluation in Kaohsiung's Primary Schools* in August 1999. This plan helps every school develop the school's distinguishing characteristic according to its own administrative affairs, and assists in setting up indicators of evaluation. A "meeting for illustration of teaching evaluation in Kaohsiung City, at schools of all levels" was held in January 2000. After a one-year trial, the *Regulation of Teacher Professional Evaluation below High School in Kaohsiung* was released in February 2000, and was given a one-year trial period. A self-critique was made in August 2001, and every school began to plan its method of implementation.

In Kaohsiung, the Chief of the Bureau of Education, Zeng Xian-Zheng (2000), pointed out that:

> "...teaching evaluation's main function lies in encouraging teachers to develop their profession, offering a mirror for them to reflect on their strengths. Teachers can set up an ideal teaching goal under a fully supported environment, improve teaching quality, and pursue the professional development. So, the evaluation method is a golden opportunity for improving a teacher's overall accomplishment."

In Kaohsiung, every primary school mainly follows the local government's draft of the *"Regulation of Teacher Professional Evaluation below High School in Kaohsiung"* to design its system of evaluation.

Taipei County

Since 1994, the MoE has already implemented an overall "Grades 1–9 Curriculum". In so far as teaching is concerned, the biggest change is that there are clear organisations and operations for curriculum development at school. These organisations help motivate schools to promote their curriculum, thereby exemplifying a great breakthrough in modern educational reform. Besides curriculum design and the implementation of a teaching plan, the evaluation of the effectiveness of teaching has been the current need for formal education. The purpose of this is to amend and adjust the development of a school-based curriculum.

In order to understand the basic educational unit and improve the present situation, curriculum evaluation, teaching evaluation, and students' ability tests are at the heart of education evaluation. They have already been launched successfully. The main purposes are to plan and implement the school curriculum, put forward suggestions for improvement, and informing teachers about relevant students' learning to design a teaching plan to be remedied. There are already some effects. Only the teaching evaluation is still in its preliminary planning stage. However, the moulding of a teacher's professional image and the increasing expertise of modern education have not been completely developed yet. Taipei County Government adopts the development strategies of a bottom–up model to help teachers develop professional knowledge and skills and to strengthen the overall quality of teaching. The Government therefore establishes a feasible teaching evaluation, through implementing the pilot experiment programme progressively to seek the successful model as a reference to be popularised and used in the future.

In order to implement "Grades 1–9 Curriculum", reduce the error/fault of the transfer of teaching knowledge, and improve the quality of management, schools and teachers face challenges from the people and the impacts from the community. Hence, the Bureau of Education of Taipei County cooperated with academic institutions to devise "*the Experiment Plan of Teaching Professional Evaluation*", and began implementing this in February of 2005. Taipei County Government invited 15 primary and secondary schools to participate in this programme. The results of this trial were to determine whether or not to fully implement TE in the academic year of 2006, and to familiarise teachers with the professional knowledge and skills towards professionalism.

7.2.2 Implementation of Experimental Teacher Evaluation

1. Purposes

Taipei City

The main purpose of Taipei City Government's project is "to improve teachers' teaching, promote their professional development and improve the quality of education of the school". The project also defines the *mentor* as the person "who is able to coach his/her colleague in teaching and can offer him/her some assistance and support when needed".

Kaohsiung City

The purposes of Kaohsiung City Government's project are "to improve the city through high school teachers' teaching quality", "to diagnose, coach, and bring about advancement in teachers' profession" and "to safeguard students' rights and interests to study".

Taipei County

Taipei County's project serves "to familiarise teachers with their professional expertise and gradually shape a professional image", "to facilitate teachers' ability to engage in self-reflection and self-improvement and to promote the quality and skills of evaluative knowledge" and "to lead teachers to accept learning with their peers, and to construct a learning-oriented organisational culture".

Summary

Most of the three local governments' purposes are similar, in that they promote teachers' professional development. The Mentor Teacher System conducted by Taipei City Government is more gently implemented than the other two programmes, because Taipei

City Government believes that teachers do not like the word evaluation. Kaohsiung City sets the purpose of safeguarding students' rights, although such a purpose is not directly related to the programme. I would say it is the contribution of this programme. However, Taipei City Government focuses on inadequate teachers and initial teachers, while the other two governments emphasise the enhancement of teachers' professionalism.

2. Standards

Taipei City

Help inadequate teachers understand and achieve the basic standard of teaching in the school and community.

Observe the teaching of inadequate teachers, offer feedback and propose changes.

Make a thorough review of teaching with inadequate teachers, and to help the teacher set up his/her teaching file.

On other teaching affairs, they offer suggestions and help. For example, they share teaching resources and teaching material, help to design course, provide teaching demonstrations, and help to improve the class, manage parent–teacher communication, and so forth.

Kaohsiung City

The content of evaluation includes expertise in the education profession, expertise in the discipline, enthusiasm for service, interpersonal relationship, special performance and so on.

Taipei County

The content of evaluation must include "teaching planning and preparation", "implementation and strategies of teaching", "classroom management and learning atmosphere", "teacher training and professional development", "communication and cooperation", and "teaching evaluation and feedback". The indicators and criteria of evaluation of each school can be based on the *Basic Indicators of Teaching Professional Evaluation below High School* introduced by the Bureau of Education.

Summary

The standards of evaluation in all the experimental programmes are directly referred and related to teaching. Therefore, these programmes can be effective in terms of improving teacher's teaching, so that these programmes benefit students' learning.

3. Methods

Taipei City

The identity of the evaluator: This project is one of peer evaluation. Teachers who have more than 8 years of teaching experience and expertise in field teaching, and more than 2 years of teaching experience (and are willing to be mentor teachers) are invited to coach and improve other teachers' teaching, offer relevant educational consultation services, and are given the opportunity for further professional development.

Data collection of evaluation: The methods include teaching demonstrations, observations, videotaping one's teaching, and presenting a teaching portfolio.

Dealing with the evaluation report: Open evaluation is adopted, meaning that teachers can review the evaluation report about their teaching, and are requested to propose a plan of improvement within one month.

Purpose of evaluation: This is to emphasise formative evaluation, and relies mainly on helping and coaching teachers to improve their teaching.

Kaohsiung City

According to the *Regulation of Teacher Professional Evaluation below High School in Kaohsiung*, the methods of evaluation are stated from Article 3 to Article 8. They are:

While the implementation of evaluation should emphasise both the process and the results, such methods as portfolio evaluation, teaching behaviour observation, peer interviews, parents' suggestion and so on can be adopted. (Article 3)

Generally, evaluation includes two aspects: self-evaluation and inner school evaluation, which are submitted for re-examination by the Bureau of Education when necessary. (Article 4)

Self-evaluation follows a checklist designed by the school. Teachers fill in the relevant materials and examine each point or aspect to understand their teaching performance. (Article 5)

Internal school evaluation is done by an evaluation group in every school. This group evaluates regularly or irregularly in the school. The head teacher is the convenor; the other members include teacher and parent representatives. Teacher representatives should include those who are involved in administrative work. (Article 6)

Every school should conduct guidance before implementing teachers' profession evaluation. The evaluation helps teachers draft a proper teaching plan before the beginning of a new term, and sets up a personal teaching portfolio. (Article 7)

Each teacher accepts an annual self-evaluation and an internal school evaluation. (Article 8)

Taipei County

Teachers' self-evaluation: Teachers carry out a self-evaluation based on a checklist: they fill in the relevant form(s) in an attempt to understand their own performance. After the self-evaluation, they are expected to focus on self-growth, propose a plan of professional development (with the exception of the one who is retained), and submit this report to the Office of Academic Affairs to as a memorandum.

Internal evaluation group: School evaluation is regularly/irregularly executed by the evaluation team, which is constituted by the Teaching Evaluation Committee.

Teachers' peer-evaluation: Teachers of the same level mutually evaluate each other. They are familiar with their peers' teaching material, and they can share similar professional experiences in teaching.

Summary

These three experiments are site-based teacher evaluations. The ones conducted in Kaohsiung City and Taipei County are annual evaluations, so they include self-evaluation and peer/inner evaluation. Taipei City's programme is based on improving the progress of inadequate teachers.

4. Results

Taipei City

Taipei's mentor teacher system focuses on formative evaluation rather than summative evaluation. Therefore, the purpose is to improve teaching, promote teachers' professional development and ensure that a school's educational quality is maintained.

Kaohsiung City

The results of the internal school evaluation should be written as detailed comments. A teacher who has not reached a certain standard will be asked to propose an improvement plan within one month. It is essential for him/her to achieve improvement at school and be subjected to a group appraisal. If there is no significant improvement, a report must be submitted to the Bureau of Education for establishing a new evaluation group to carry on re-examination and coaching in the school. A teacher who excels in the teachers' profession evaluation deserves to be rewarded properly. In contrast, a teacher whose results are poor must be mentioned in a record to the school's evaluation committee, as a reference showing unfavourable teaching.

Taipei County

Results of the evaluation are principally text based. They can be used to prove a teacher understands himself/herself, and how s/he works towards self-improvement. Meanwhile the resources of in-service training are utilised for learning and self-motivation. The results are not linked to the Assessment of Teacher Achievement (ATA).

Summary

Kaohsiung City's and Taipei County's programmes place more emphases on paperwork (i.e. in the results/written comments), while Taipei City's programme is more flexible because it focuses on teachers' individual problems.

7.2.3 The Effects of the Experiments of Teacher Evaluation

Taipei City

To sum up the above, the mentor teacher system in Taipei is mainly conducted by peer teachers who are good in teaching. They coach initial teachers, teachers who are willing to participate, and those who have difficulties in teaching. The system does not involve the teacher's achievement evaluation, nor does one get an increase in salary and grade. Such a system can help teachers achieve the professional development and improve their teaching quality under less pressure. The scheme is mainly for coaching and helping initial teachers and those with problems, so it does not totally accord with the spirit of teacher evaluation. To reflect the function of mentoring, the Government should increase the incentive, so that outstanding teachers are encouraged to participate in the selection process. However, the selection of mentor teachers still relies heavily on the documents supplied, so oral

examination is conducted only in cases of necessity. This means that it is difficult to guarantee the quality of mentor teachers. Based on this method, the principle is that each mentor teacher can coach one or two teachers, and coaching a teacher can reduce two hours of his/her teaching work, but the maximum number of hours reduced is four. This presents a problem, as it is difficult to equalise the workload of mentor teachers' coaching and teachers' teaching. Moreover, the school must seriously consider whether the mentor teacher's teaching is influential, and whether it might affect the rights of students during coaching.

Kaohsiung City

To summarise, the *Regulation of Teacher Professional Evaluation below High School in Kaohsiung* contains both summative and formative teacher evaluation, but there are many aspects that call for urgent improvement. Therefore, if the Government intends to set up a feasible and effective teacher profession evaluation, it ought to thoroughly discuss and explore relevant weaknesses and problems in Kaohsiung. Nevertheless some voices come from teachers. For example, Zheng (2005), Dean of Studies of Kaohsiung municipal junior high school, agrees that "positive evaluation of teacher professional development will help teachers improve teaching quality, enhance the outcome of students' learning, and promote a school's innovation." However, some questions and predicaments of hasty implementation will be unavoidable. Zhang claims that those questions include "increase in teachers' burden", "the criteria of teacher evaluation is too wide", "difficult to stipulate the objective of measurement", "the evaluator has not received professional training", "lack of reliability in teachers' self-evaluation", "teachers' association fails to cooperate actively", "lack of clear supplementary measures", and "difficult to elect parent representatives". He suggested "constituting a professional evaluation group", "establishing a set of objective evaluation tools and methods", "clearly setting the goal of evaluation", "clarifying the constitution of Parents' Association and choosing the parent representative for the teacher evaluation committee", "setting up a bottom-up model to promote the policies system", "establishing a mechanism for assessing teachers' profession", and "helping teachers to organise their teaching files".

Zeng Xian-Zheng persisted in promoting teachers' professional evaluation policies, but this caused a great backlash from teachers (Yang, 2005: 124). As a result, the evaluation mechanism promoted by the Bureau of Education in Kaohsiung City served to assist teachers in their professional development, and many teachers were relieved. The

opposition was gradually converted into a driving force for improvement. This is why the teacher professional evaluation in Kaohsiung City is thriving.

Taipei County

The Experimental Plan for Teaching Professional Evaluation implemented by the Taipei County Government assists teachers to examine their teaching process, encourages professional development and personal growth, and provides related counselling and advisory services to support career advancement and the involvement in the trial experiment. Moreover, this pilot programme has a good all-rounded evaluative plan and the development of related measures. It intends to encourage teachers to propose plans for self-growth and be committed to reshaping the image of the teaching profession to accord with various public expectations. In addition, the meaning and purpose of implementing teachers' profession evaluation in Taipei County is explicit. It takes into account both the formative and summative aspects, thereby the validity of the evaluation. Further, the diversity of evaluation methods, models and technology helps to enhance its reliability. In addition, the contents of evaluation are very flexible so that schools can tailor programmes based on its characteristics. Its intention is well-suited to the current trend and reaches the expectations of fully developing a school's characteristics. However, if further explanation of the evaluation results is clear, it will be even better. For example, is the reward system for good teachers linked to the promotion and pay? Will it be combined to improve the teacher grading system? How can the skills of inadequate teachers be enhanced? What will be the next step when the improvement is invalid: dismissal or demotion? All these should be stated clearly; otherwise it will become a mere formality without effectiveness. To refine the evaluation mechanism, it is advisable for members of an evaluation group to accept professional training to enhance their knowledge and skills of and their sensitivity towards the observation of teachers' teaching.

7.2.4 Evaluation of TE experiments in Taipei City, Taipei County, and Kaohsiung City

In this section, I examine the implementation of three experimental TE projects through the Recommended Models of Teacher Evaluation (RMTE), which I have gathered from reviewing international research related to TE (see Section 5.6).

In Taipei City, the purposes of TE are consistent with RMTE. It includes teachers' professional development and schools' goals. However, compared with the RMTE, the

data collection used in Taipei City's model has one additional method, i.e. self-evaluation, but lacks two methods, namely students' achievement and interview. Although this model includes Danielson's four domains (planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibility) (2001), the content of each aspect is insufficiently defined.

In Kaohsiung City, the improvement of the "city" is prioritised above teachers' individual professional development. The project appears to be characterised by paternalism and collectivism. In comparison with RMTE, data collection includes two additional methods: self-evaluation and parents' suggestions, but it does not take into account students' achievement. However, parents' suggestions are inadequate, and in general, this method is not recommended in my study (this is described in Section 4.1). Using RMTE as a basis for comparison, Kaohsiung City's model focuses more on instruction and classroom management, but gives little attention to professional responsibility.

In Taipei County, the purpose of TE is to facilitate teachers' professional expertise, but it does not focus on the school's development. This project does not use interviews and students' achievement as methods of data collection, but it includes self-evaluation. Like the Kaohsiung model, it does not give much emphasis to professional responsibility. Moreover, we can observe some similarities between this model and the Taipei City project, particularly in terms of the insufficiency in the four domains.

With reference to the four standards of the *Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards to Teacher Evaluation* (Aspect 6 in RMTE), all three evaluation systems met the propriety standards. Comparing these projects, In terms of utility and feasibility standards, Taipei city performed best, but with regard to accuracy standards, Taipei County and Kaohsiung City performed better. Overall, it is useful to integrate these three experiments. Annual evaluations can follow in the footsteps of Kaohsiung City's system and Taipei County's programme. Taipei City's programme can be adopted to mentor inadequate teachers.

7.3 An Experiment by the Ministry of Education

Although the implementation of TEPD in Taiwan started later than those in Europe and the United States, these issues of education quality and teaching evaluation have been receiving greater attention in recent years. "The Commission on Educational Reform"

(CER 教育改革審議委員會) has proposed in *The General Consultation Report for Education Reform* (教育改革總諮議報告書, 1996) that mechanisms to enhance teachers' professionalism and to assist them in further education, self-development and evaluation should be established as soon as possible. These mechanisms serve to increase teachers' enthusiasm and promote secondary and primary school teachers as the core education reformers.

7.3.1 The Planning Phase

As the *Amended Draft of the Teachers Law* (教師法部分條文修正草案) has not yet been approved, TE still lacks a legal basis; therefore the TE system cannot be implemented. However, in order to respond and implement the concepts of "enhancing teaching professionalism" and "establishing an educational evaluation system" [as mentioned in the General Education Reform Consultation Report], the MoE referred to the pilot programmes of teacher evaluation and/or mentor teacher systems performed by counties and cities to plan and to drive the TEPD pilot programme forward.

The purpose of promoting TE in counties and cities is formative, helping teachers enhance their teaching quality as well as developing their professionalism. Such experiences of TE provide valuable information for implementing the pilot TEPD programme by the MoE, for instance, in terms of peer review, the mentor teacher system (教學輔導教師設置), professional development and professional dialogue with peers.

7.3.2 The Pilot Phase

In order to emphasise the importance of TEPD, the MoE invited the National Teachers' Association, the National Alliance of Parents' Organisation, experts and scholars to form a group for reviewing the pilot project. The group integrated and exchanged views to seek a consensus, through learning from previous pilot experiences and international research. According to the conclusions and recommendations of the National Education Development Conference (2003), the MoE began implementing the experimental TEPD plan. For improving teachers' professional development and raising teaching quality, the MoE proposed "The Experimental Plan for Teacher Profession Development Evaluation" in February 2004. The Plan was designed to test an evaluation scheme in the first half of 2006, with the aim of implementing it in all schools in the second half of 2006. This experiment is expected to be completed in three years and be subjected to a self-evaluation

and an assessment of its feasibility every year to determine whether it should be continued. The plan encourages the participating schools to implement this experiment and carry out the evaluation process voluntarily.

However, due to the resistance from the National Union of Teachers, two years after it began, the Government decided to offer funding only to those schools that are willing to implement the appraisal.

The main focus in my study is the aforementioned experimental education policy. I shall examine the process of formulation and implementation, not only because it is a national experiment, but also because it could underpin a formal regulation of teacher evaluation in Taiwan.

The MoE has executed the experiment of the Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development since 2006. The Government encouraged school teachers to participate in TEPD voluntarily. To avoid schools from ignoring the goal of TEPD in order to obtain subsidies from the Government, a simplified form of the plan was entirely adopted during the experiment. Transparency was emphasised: the procedure that disclosed participation continued to be used.

The participators should be more than 40%, or more than 20 of the number of teachers in every experimental school. The premise is to run the plan as an experiment, passing through the administrative affairs of schools meeting, and stating clearly how many teachers agree to take part in this experiment. The MoE invites the National Teachers' Association, National Alliance of Parents' Organisation, as well as scholars and experts to organise a group to verify and evaluate the experimental plan. The process of forming common views from the beginning (dissemination, understanding and pursuing common understanding) to the end (combining diverse views and running the experiment) has been going on for 10 years. It not only shows the importance of teacher appraisal, but also reveals the Government's discretion in implementation (MoE, 2006).

It was sincerely emphasised in the course of the declaration meeting that the MoE will negotiate, through numerous discussions, with the National Teachers' Association and the National Alliance of Parents' Organisation to obtain some common views. The Government hopes to see TEPD as a feedback mechanism through which teachers can realise the strengths and limitations in their teaching within the whole structure of teacher professional development.

During the process of impelling this evaluation, the strategies that the MoE adopted are as follows:

1. Negotiation of Ideas to Obtain Consensus.

Before running TEPD as an experimental project, the MoE conducted discussions with the National Teachers' Association, National Alliance of Parents' Organisation, experts and scholars to try to reach a unanimous viewpoint, and holds the declaration meeting around Taiwan to let teachers understand the goal of this experiment.

2. Establishment of the Basis of the Law

The amendment of the Teachers' Law was not passed by the Legislative Yuan. Therefore the MoE takes relevant education decrees as a basis for their proposal. These decrees include: 1) the 9th, 10thand 13th articles of the Educational Basic Law, and 2) the conclusions and suggestions of the national educational development meeting held by the MoE on 13th and 14th September 2003.

The first draft of the Experimental Method of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development below High School was designed as an experiment in 2003, and this later constituted the Draft of the MoE to Subsidise the Experiment of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development, which was launched in 2005.

3. Limitations to the Funds of the Experiment to Prevent Schools from Deviating from the Original Intentions

The subsidy was limited to a certain range so that schools do not deviate from the original intentions of the experiment. Also, this serves to obviate schools which improperly require a teacher to participate in the experiment.

4. Studies of Development Trends of Various Countries and the Lessons Learnt

From March to August 2005, Chen Ming-In (2006) undertook a special project on the responses towards TE in various countries. His investigation includes 11 Countries (14 regions). Chen discovered that there are 9 countries (13 regions) in which TE is used for teacher professional development. Therefore he concludes that the international trend of TE has been pointing towards professional development. The school is responsible for teacher evaluation in Canada and another 7 countries (10 regions). The evaluation content was constructed by the Government in 11 countries (regions), while it was designed by the school itself in 8 countries (regions).

The MoE therefore launched the experiment of teacher evaluation in the light of such an international trend. The process involved the adoption of the following administrative process:

> Establishment of the teacher evaluation group→ Request for teachers' voluntary participation → Passed by school meeting→ Initial assessment in the country → Review and approval by the MoE.

The MoE demands the use of a bottom–up development strategy to accord with the teachers' expectations of school-based models of TEPD (quoted by the MoE, 2006).

5. Format of the Core Issues

The key issue was formatted as follows: central to all these goals is the TEPD. Leading school administration moves towards "teaching leadership" and "school-based" inspection and evaluation. The combination of self-reflection, peer interaction, in-service training and action research can form a supporting system for professional development (MoE, 2006).

Therefore, it can be seen that the MoE's attempt to promote teachers' profession evaluation is through active research. The main spirit aim is to provide a 'formative' teacher evaluation which matches the development of teachers and the mechanism of in-service education. Also, proper policies and implementation methods should be provided to enhance the quality of teaching.

6. A Unified Procedure

In order to disclose a clear system, application forms and procedures were unified and simplified. Teachers' volition is the premise, and this must be passed during the school's meeting. The number of participants must be clearly stated.

7. Development of Supplementary Measures

For TEPD to suit teachers' demands, the MoE has organised the following supplementary measures:

Develop a unified criteria and implementation manual of teacher evaluation for all counties and cities in charge of educational administrative organisations and schools at all levels to adopt. Teachers are invited to participate in these processes so that they can understand and support the TEPD.

Four training courses are planned for the evaluator. They are: "training for promotion of knowledge and skill learning", "evaluator's basic training", "training for monitoring

teaching", and "lecturers' training". The course framework, teaching outline, and all kinds of training credits are executed together. Lecturers' training is commissioned by the National Educational Research Institute.

Introduce the mechanism of mentor teacher to organise the professional development of in-service training to examine school teachers' demands after the implementation of TEPD. Mentor teachers are asked to assist inadequate teachers to improve their quality of teaching.

The National Hsinchu University of Education was entrusted to organise a coaching group to construct a coaching and supporting network of TEPD, format the coaching area, assist the participating schools, communicate regularly with the counties' and cities' committee members for teachers' professional development to gather suggestions for revising the experiment.

Construct a website for coaching TEPD. This is used as a platform for exchanges between schools. This website includes a section on the resources of TEPD, a section on discussion and one on administration, offering the latest information of the experiment.

The mechanism of meta-evaluation of TEPD is considered for future uses. Furthermore, it assists county and municipal governments to establish a model of meta-evaluation.

The system of supporting teachers' professional development is developed through the results of the evaluation. This will serve as a mechanism for further research and for the design of an integrated plan. The needs of teachers' professional development provide the foundation for constructing the supporting system (MoE, 2006).

The MoE constantly declares that the focus of operation in this experiment is to collect every experimental experience to design a feasible mechanism. Schools or county and city governments should report various questions they face during the experimental process. This helps to reveal the true effect of the experiment. The greatest value of the implementation of experimental policy lies in the possibility of application in future policies. The problems encountered in the entire course of the experiment were seriously treated, as the basis for adjustment.

At the declaration meeting of introducing TEPD, the MoE emphasised that the essence of evaluation lies in "understanding" and "improving"' rather than in "proving" and "comparing". This might be easily understood by lay people through the surface

meaning of "Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development". The need of in-service training might be developed by the results of appraisal, which promote teachers' professional development in the future. This is favourable for forming a school-based culture.

7.3.3 The Effects of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development

The TEPD plan emphasises the process of self-review and peer-learning in order to enhance teachers' professional image. Evaluation methods include teachers' self-evaluation and internal school evaluation. The TEPD experiment is expected to be implemented for three years, and the effects are subjected to an annually examination. The spirit of this programme is teacher professional development. The Taiwanese government urged schools to apply for participation and for teachers to take part voluntarily. The TEPD programme guides school administrators towards instructional leadership and school-based evaluation. It also encouraged teachers to carry out self-reflection and peer-interaction to promote teaching and classroom management, and to improve students' learning (MoE, 2006).

The statistics provided by the MoE on the TEPD website (MoE, 2009) show the following effects (see Tables 7-4, 7-5 and 7-6):

Table 7-4: Statistical Table of Schools that Participated in TEPD

Year	*2006*	*2007*	*2008*	*2009*
Primary school	*123*	*166*	*177*	*357*
Secondary school	*26*	*49*	*67*	*117*
Vocational and High school	*16*	*29*	*57*	*140*
Total	*165*	*244*	*301*	*614*

Source: MoE (2009)

Table 7-5: Proportion of Teachers and Schools that Participated in TEPD

	2006		*2007*		*2008*	
	Schools	*Teachers*	*Schools*	*Teachers*	*Schools*	*Teachers*
Total number of schools in Taiwan	*3,861*	*201,190*	*3,867*	*203,685*	*3,871*	*203,140*
Number of Participant Schools	*165*	*3,435*	*244*	*6,092*	*301*	*8.519*
Proportion of Participation	*4.3%*	*1.7%*	*6.3%*	*3%*	*7.8%*	*4.2%*

Source: MoE (2009)

From the two tables above, we can see a greater involvement of primary schools in TEPD, as compared to secondary schools, high schools and vocational schools. Although the

proportion of participants shows a yearly increase as compared to the total number of teachers, the overall participation rate is still low. Factors influencing such low ratios are worth exploring. They are partly investigated in the next chapter.

Table 7-6: The Number of Schools that Continued to Implement TEPD

	2006-2007	*2007-2008*	*2006-2008*
Primary school	*18*	*58*	*54*
Secondary school	*2*	*20*	*14*
Vocational and high school	*1*	*15*	*11*
Total	*21*	*93*	*79*

Source: MoE (2009)

From the table above, the continuous participation of schools in TEPD is not very high.

The TEPD has been implemented into its fourth year. The number of schools participating in the experiment has gradually increased. This illustrates that the concern and attention given to TEPD is rising. However, the number of teachers and schools that continue to participate remains low. This aspect needs to be improved and strengthened.

7.4 Summary

Regarding the development of teacher evaluation in the context of Taiwanese history, several important themes can be found. First, the head teacher played an important role in the decision-making of teacher evaluation activities in the early period (in the 1947 regulations). However, in the recent experiment, the head teacher merely acts as a promoter of relevant activities; s/he is not involved in the assessment unless requested to do so. Second, teacher evaluation has evolved from the "summative" form (related to the promotion of pay and grading) to the 'formative' style (emphasising professional development). Moreover, the effects of teacher evaluation reflect the teaching quality. Third, the content of teacher evaluation has shifted its focus from faithfulness and probity to greater professionalism and expertise.

The next chapter will explore the implications of TE in Taiwan by illustrating the values of its implementation from the perspectives of those involved in it.

Chapter 8 The Implications of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development in Taiwan

8.0 Introduction

In Chapter 7, I traced the historical development of the Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development (TEPD) in Taiwan. This experiment has been running for four years. Before assessing the effectiveness of TEPD, it is important to understand teachers' general attitude and implementers' perspectives towards the project. In this chapter, teacher's attitude towards TEPD is clarified. Further, the implications of TEPD were elicited through implementers' perspectives. In other words, implementers' willingness is fundamental to the value of TEPD.

The data used in this chapter were gathered through interviews, documents (school documents, National Teachers' Association and government reports) and several dissertations that describe the TEPD (which was implemented by the MoE in Taiwan). They highlight teachers' attitude towards the implementation of TEPD based on some dissertations and investigations. These findings demonstrate that most teachers were inclined to accept TE. Therefore, the implications of TE were elicited by exploring these values from the implementation of the national experiment and link the predominant concerns of implementers' perspectives, differences and commonalities, to the demands of the national policy. Interviewees who participated in this experiment included 7 teachers, 3 head teachers and 3 officers. The officers were chosen from the Bureau of Education (TOL), Ministry of Education (TOS), and the National Teachers' Association (TOT). Three head teachers were chosen from different schools (TS1H, TS2H, and TS3H). Seven teachers come from three different schools (TS1T1, TS1T2, TS1T3, TS2T1, TS2T2, TS2T3, and TS3T1). My own experiences and views will also be integrated into this chapter. My interview data were organised using ethnographic analysis, through the process of "coding", "meaningful categories" and "development of interpretation" (described in Section 4.6).

8.1 Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan

8.1.1 The Implementation of Teacher Evaluation in the Current Taiwanese Society

My father was the head teacher of a primary school, and my mother, an elementary school teacher. Before the 1980s, primary and secondary school teachers and head teachers had considerable authority in Taiwan. As I remembered, when I was a child, in the late 1960s, one night, a parent carried a basket of sweet potatoes and a stick to my house. He was the parent of one of the students in my mother's class. In order to thank my mother's corporal punishment on students at school, a basket of sweet potatoes was a gift of appreciation, and a stick signified the hope that the teacher would continue to provide concern for the child. My mother began teaching in 1953. There were normally about 80 students in a class. Until the 1960s, the number of students in a class was around 50. In such a large class, parents felt that if corporal punishment was used, it meant that students received particular concern from the teacher, so it was a glory. Corporal punishment on students by teachers was not only legal, but was accepted by the Taiwanese society and culture at that time. In fact, that was a key indicator of a good teacher.

Over the last two decades, Taiwanese society has experienced great political reform (see Chapter 2). Nowadays, Taiwanese people are more concerned about their rights. This kind of concern resulted in greater participation in public affairs. This wave of reform has deeply influenced educational management. It is no longer a paternalistic management, but one which strives to achieve greater satisfaction among the people through the expansion of decision-making in a democratic way. The development of educational rights is seen to orient towards the quasi-consumer when parents demand the quality of children's education from the government in Taiwan. Therefore, the right of parents' participation is promoted; parents have begun to be more involved in school affairs and decision-making. Generally, the purpose of broadening participation is to maintain a high quality education. The quality of education is predominantly affected by the quality of a teacher's teaching, so the public has been increasingly concerned about maintaining the standard of teaching. "How to define a good teacher" still remains a dispute, but "what is an inadequate teacher?" has reached some sort of consensus in Taiwanese society. Recently, there has been an extensive discussion on the issue that there are some inadequate teachers in the country. According to the official statistical report (http://www.kcta.org.tw/milkping/

view.asp?Id=757), there are about 8,000 inadequate teachers in Taiwan, but the dismissed ratio is very low. The Amended Draft of the Teachers' Law was passed on 26th May 2004 to empower the mechanism for dismissing inadequate teachers, thereby reducing the proportion of teacher representatives in the committee of TE to reform the bad habits of "teachers helping one another". The *Amended Draft of the Teachers' Law* stipulates that schools can dismiss teachers and ask them to retire earlier if their teaching is of debilitating or sub-standard quality or if there is proof from local hospitals that they cannot be transferred to another working environment:

> Recently, there has been an extensive discussion on the issue of inadequate teachers in Taiwanese society. There is no effective solution for this, because it relates to personal right of these teachers. One has to be very strict when dealing with this issue; however, the outcome might be far from the expectations of the community and the parents. We [government] set a criterion for professional development. If a teacher's performance does not meet the criterion, this teacher can be dismissed. I consider that the idea of the professional development evaluation of teachers is initially designed by our government to respond to the society's expectations. (TOT interview)

News of inadequate teachers was described in Section 1.1.2. The seriousness of this issue cannot be disregarded. In the era of economic downturn, there are many unemployed teachers in Taiwan. If inadequate teachers are not aware of their weaknesses and self-imposed demands, and occupy teaching positions, social fairness and justice will be violated, personally. The Director-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan (2005, http://win.dgbas.gov.tw/fies/a11.asp?year=94) announced in the *Household Income and Expenditure Survey* that families of the highest income group have a disposable income of 1,834,994 NTD per year (roughly equivalent to 33,973 GBP), while the lowest income group has only 303,517 NTD per year per household (5,617 GBP), with a difference of up to 6 times. Disposable income refers to the total amount of income after deducting tax, and a variety of welfare benefits from the authorities. The average monthly income of a teacher is 60,000 NTD, and the annual income per capita is close to 900,000 NTD (18,000 GBP). Together with other benefits and allowances, teachers are therefore classified as a high-end level. Since teachers fall into that category and their salaries are paid by government, their professional status should be evaluated more objectively in public in Taiwanese society, so that the service quality of their professional status is equal to their income. Such as TS3H propounded:

> Firstly, in Taiwanese society nowadays, teachers are regarded as earning income of the high-end level; some are even considered to be earning high- level income.

> Secondly, the occupation of a teacher is absolutely ensured. Are teachers in the United Kingdom and the United States as assured as those in Taiwan? An American teacher is an employee, but that is not the case for the Taiwanese teacher (who is regarded as a civil servant)... Thirdly, Taiwanese teachers do not accept evaluation, inspection and public criticism, because they believe that they are professional. Why can't a profession be evaluated by the public? People can publicly criticise Chen Shui-bian [the former President], why can't these teachers be inspected ... However, the criticism is from a theoretical perspective [rational or objective] rather than one of verbal abuse. Teachers should accept this criticism; after all, that should be a characteristic of a "great teacher". If teachers regard themselves as professionals, why do they disagree with public evaluation? (TS3H interview)

In August 2008, in the National Conference for BoE (the Bureau of Education) Commissioners, 23 county and city BoEs, expressed support for the TEPD, one bureau chose abstention , and one was against it (*Mandarin Daily News* 2008.08.27, version 2). The *Education, Parenting, Family and Lifestyle* magazine conducted a survey and found that 57.23 % of primary and secondary school teachers were willing to accept evaluation, but 67.76% of teachers disagreed with adjustments of salary and promotions according to evaluation. A school principal agreed that teachers should accept evaluation (*Education, Parenting, Family and Lifestyle*, 2009.04 .08, version 1).

According to the evidence above and that given in the previous section, "implementing teacher evaluation in Taiwan" is a common consensus. However, the regulation is still not enacted because the National Teachers' Association (NTA) has long been opposed to it. From the perspective of the government, the NTA is currently complacent and passive in terms of the professional development of teachers.

> The NTA is against teacher evaluation. The first reason is that NTA is not willing to go along this road [implementing Teacher Evaluation]; the organisation satisfies the current situation. NTA considers that the professional teacher should have volition and initiative, rather than having administrative units conduct a teacher evaluation system to dominate teachers, to direct teachers about what to do. This is the part that NTA is concerned about. (TOS interview)

The NTA's view, from the government's perspective, is that teachers who advocate the Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) should have reputation for his/her social status. A teacher's profession should not be doubted. However, NTA prefer to focus on the implementation of the actual policy. The government believes that, NTA's fundamental stance is to be totally opposed to TE. TOS stated that:

> For the NTA, the best policy is not to have it [TE] enacted. Therefore, when the Teachers' Law was enacted, they lobbied legislators to block the Law. When amendment of the law cannot proceed, you [the government] have no choice but

> to negotiate with me [NTA]. Unless we have a consensus, amendment of the law will be continuous. From this perspective, the best way is not to amend it. (TOS interview)

The NTA argues that MoE misunderstood NTA as unreasonableness of opposition. MoE claims that, basically, the NTA does not propose an effective TE system and MoE do not trust that NTA has the ability to develop a suitable TE model for educational practice. NTA's officer explained:

> The main governor's attitude is questionable. What is the purpose of evaluation? And what is the process of evaluation? If there is no precise way of conducting the teacher evaluation, I would like to express our objection, and the objection will stand. Questions of the purpose of evaluation, which we are concerned about, are nothing more than whether it would be possible to combine it with the system of renewing certificates, classification, future salary and teacher achievement assessment. (TOT interview)

The MoE and NTA do not trust each other which can be found from previous interviews. However, do NTA's statements sufficiently represent Taiwanese teachers' voices? In the next section, I attempt to probe teachers' attitude towards TEPD through several related areas of research in Taiwan.

8.1.2 Teachers' Attitude towards Teacher Evaluation of Professional Development

Although the Commissioners (of the Bureau of Education), including some samples of teachers and head teachers, tended to agree with TE, general teachers' view will be explored in detail here. In this section, teachers' attitude is analysed according to two issues. The first concerns their general opinions about the education policy of TEPD. This provides a basis for assessing whether TE should be given the green light. The other issue is how teachers perceive the benefit of professional development from this policy. Their perceptions may underpin the educational policy when the Taiwanese government launches TEPD.

Teachers' Attitude towards the Ministry of Education's Experimental Policy of TEPD

Most of the recent Taiwanese research on TEPD, including teaching evaluation, teacher evaluation and TEPD, was completed before the MoE enforced the experimental policy of TEPD. Major themes included the current status of implementing evaluation, evaluation criteria and feasibility, evaluation and professional development and so forth. Teachers' views of TEPD can be found on a par with the status of TE. Since the MoE (2007) ran the

policy of evaluation as an experiment, teachers' general views about the evaluation have been collected through questionnaire investigations. Most of their responses were positive. This is illustrated in the Masters dissertations of Huang Wen-Fen (2007) (an example of teachers in Yun-Lin County), Chen Yin-Wen (2007) (an example of teachers in Tai-Tung county) and Chen Yi-Jie (2007) (an example of teachers in Kaohsuing City). Sun Zhi-Ling (2007) (an example of teachers in Taipei County) also pointed out that through the implementation of the TE policy as an experiment, the stakeholders' (mainly referring to teachers) response was positive, but nearly 27.8% of the educators responded negatively. Further findings revealed that the different backgrounds of these educators resulted in different reactions towards the policy. "Schools that participated in the experiment", "teachers who participated in the relevant training", and "teachers who participated in the experiment" responded more positively to this policy, whilst "schools that did not participate in the experiment", "teachers who did not participate in the relevant training", and "teachers who did not participate experiment" responded negatively.

While the general attitude appeared to be positive, it was found that teachers were still in doubt and frightened about evaluation when researchers (e.g. Lee Kun-Tiao, 2007; Lu Yu-Zhen, 2007) probed further. For example, Lee (2007) explored three primary schools in Taipei County, and his results show that while the participant (an experimental school) viewed the policy positively, teachers still had doubts and worries, were frightened, distrusted and psychologically resisted this kind of evaluation. Lu (2007) investigated the situations in three schools implementing TEPD in Taichung. Lu points out that teachers acknowledged the idea of the Ministry of Education (MoE), but there were slight differences between the plan of TEPD as an experiment at present and the teachers' ideas. The experiment's limitations came from "teacher's heavy workload", and "their negative impressions of the word 'evaluation,' which were deeply rooted in their minds, and were hard to change". Therefore, the result of the case study is not as positive as that of the questionnaire. While different methodologies will inevitably lead to different discoveries, most teachers treated the experimental policy positively and actively. Nevertheless, many doubts and limitations remain to be overcome.

The Relation of Teachers' Attitude between TEPD and "Teacher Professional Development"

Regarding professional development, teachers are concerned about whether or not the experimental policy of evaluation can promote their professional development. This issue

has always been influenced by numerous factors of professional development; hence, it is difficult to accurately determine the most significant factor(s). Generally, when we explore related studies before or after the experimental evaluation by the MoE, we find a positive relationship between teachers' attitude towards the evaluation of teaching and their professional development. In other words, teachers believe that their teaching skills developed after their school began implementing an evaluation system. Cai Yi-Ru's (2006) study shows that there is a significant mid-level correlation between "teachers' attitude towards the evaluation" and "teachers' professional development". In other words, the better the teacher's attitude towards evaluation, the more positive is their behaviour towards development. Huang Yi-Jie (2007) found that there is a positive mid-level correlation between 'teacher culture in "teachers' professional development"' and "their perspective of TEPD". Chen Wen-Ying (2007) did a further analysis and pointed out that teachers with a higher teaching efficiency believe that TEPD can contribute to their professional development, and are inclined to support this policy. In contrast, those who are pessimistic about TEPD do not consider it beneficial to their professional development. Teachers who hold a positive attitude about the TEPD have a higher teaching efficiency. Also, they believe that the evaluation contributes to their professional development. In addition, Chen's study finds that if teachers think that TEPD can improve their self-development ability and attitude, they will have higher teaching efficiency. If they believe that TEPD can improve the professional attitude, they will perceive the process in a more positive manner. Finally, the viewpoint that evaluation contributes to professional development is a good indicator of teaching efficiency and one's attitude towards evaluation.

Using the results of questionnaire investigations, based on the aforementioned studies, we find that there is a positive correlation between "teacher's attitude towards TEPD" and "teachers' professional development". Further, if we look at some research with case studies, we will arrive at the same conclusion.

Lu (2007) discovered that teachers in the three case-study schools expected TEPD to be able to contribute to their professional growth on the whole, and agreed with the idea of implementation by the MoE. Based on the results gathered from interviews, Lee (2007) also mentioned that teachers can experience the improvement of self-efficiency after undergoing in-service training, self-evaluation, mutual appraisal, peer teacher dialogue, self-reflection and so on.

Looking at the final report, which was previously implemented by Taipei County, I observed that the general difficulties part included "don't understand its benefits for the teacher" (the Bureau of Education of Taipei County, 2005a) and "at the first stage, participants did not experience the evaluation scheme that promotes their professional growth" (the Bureau of Education of Taipei County, 2005b). Therefore, the government should implement this experiment prudently.

From the results of previous studies in the experimental policy, which employed qualitative and quantitative research, I find that although there are numerous factors influencing teachers' professional development, only very few documents mentioned the positive correlation between TEPD and "teachers' professional development". Perhaps this finding can serve as a basis for the Taiwanese government when implementing such an evaluation and promoting the theoretical foundation of professional development. Furthermore, they can learn how to encourage teachers to accept the policy.

8.1.3 The Operation of the NTA in Taiwan

According to the previous section, there is still a debate between the NTA and the MoE about the legislation of TE. The English government's experience is a good example. In England, when the Department for Education and Skills introduced a new regulation about Teacher Performance Management in 2006, the regulation was agreed by the Association of School and College Leaders (ASCL), the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL), the National Association of Schoolmaster Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT), the National Employers' Organisation for School Teachers (NEOST) and the Professional Association of Teachers (PAT), but not the National Union of Teachers (NUT). While the NUT designed a different model of Teacher Performance Management for their members, the Department of Education and Skills approved the alternative system. In Taiwan, since the NTA claims that it has the ability to develop an effective TE model, the MoE can tolerate and trust NTA to develop an alternative model.

I had the opportunity to visit a primary school in Bristol in December 2006, and I had the chance to comprehend the education system in England because my son studied in one of the local primary schools. Those experiences not only encompassed observing classroom management, teachers' teaching and school administration, but also included a number of informal conversations with teachers and head teachers. During those conversations, I focused on some topics, such as how to implement teacher performance

management in their school from a teacher's perspective, and their perception of the NUT. The teachers I have spoken to share a similar view: they do not recognise the measures of the NUT. They do not believe that the NUT can represent teachers' voice(s), because they assume that the organisation's administrators were selected by the government. Paradoxically, their action is in accordance with NUT's decision.

A teacher has a heavy workload, so that they have little time to be concerned about these affairs other than teaching. Therefore they do not really understand the actual operation of the NUT, which is an organisation at the national level. Through certain actions, such as taking industrial action, the NUT succeeded in its negotiations with the government. For example, members of the NUT have voted for a national strike in response to the School Teachers' Review Body's recommended pay increase. NUT's 24-hour strike caused many schools in England and Wales to close on 24th April 2008. (http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/7354285.stm)

Regarding the teachers' association in Taiwan, there are three levels, namely school teachers' association, city/county teachers' association and the NTA. All teachers' associations are constituted by Taiwanese teachers. There are over 100,000 teachers below high school who attend the NTA (Lee, 2002: 1).

Taiwan's Legislative Yuan passed a legal process, which I have discussed in Section 3 of Chapter 2. At the beginning of the second reading, the Commission invites relevant interest groups for discussion. If the outcome of the discussions has a high degree of consensus, the bill will pass the second and third readings smoothly and becomes an official bill. On the contrary, if the bills are very controversial and raise many comments or conflicts, the bill will be returned to the proposal stage of the Executive Yuan. In order to enact TE smoothly, the MoE has been communicating with the NTA for a decade, but it is still difficult to reach a consensus. The communication process can be divided into three stages:

> In the initial stage, there was still a high degree of agreement in our communication, probably around the year 2000. They [Government] discussed with NTA the question of the head teacher returning to be a teacher after his/her completion of a term. ...the initial stage is probably for this purpose. The second stage's purpose was to enter a trial experiment, to implement the teacher evaluation experiment. We have defeated or subdued the Government when those provisions were enacted in the Legislative Yuan. Subsequently we discovered that the Government lied; some provisions included a number of measures with which we disagreed. It was decided that the Teacher Evaluation

> and Teacher Grading System should be linked, and the results of the evaluation will be used for the future grading of teachers. We totally disagreed with this. The third stage probably started in 2007. In this phase, the focus was on the handling of inadequate teachers and issues of corporal punishment, sexual harassment, abuse and many others. To deal with these problems, schools were given pressure from communities and parents. After 2006, the purpose of evaluation was linked to the handling of inadequate teachers. Many parents and mass media played an active role in the enactment of the Act of Dealing with Unqualified Teachers in Taipei City by Taipei City Government. They also raised the self-government regulations in the hope that the Government can implement teacher evaluation and dismiss inadequate teachers. (TOT interview)

From the NTA's view, they initially supported the MoE to implement TE up to the point where they felt they were deceived. There is only one goal for TE, namely "professional development"; TE should not be linked to other measures, such as "Teacher Grading". From the MoE's perspective, NTA used different tactics, including delay in legislation, as described by the interviewee TOS. In other words, NTA did not negotiate in good faith. Hence, the result of labelling caused them to negotiate impasse.

> The MoE believes that the NTA is always against them; they often oppose the government's views. The MoE is firmly convinced that we [NTA] are censorious. Therefore, our opinion will not necessarily be used. (TOT Interview)

The predominant premise in NTA's statement is to represent the views of the majority of teachers. The Director of the Department of Research in Education of NTA, Wong Chia-Ping, describes the reason for opposition, including the point that "[a] teacher's professionalism should not be categorised" and "MoE offers several perfunctorily unverified models created by few professors for schools to imitate or copy". (http://140.111.114.48/tb/archive/index.php?t-817.html) She complains that the MoE's decentralised approach in the standards of TE system is *laissez-faire,* so school teachers can do anything in the system.

However, the passive opposition of NTA's attitude is not totally supported by all the teachers. Interviewee (TS2H) believes that NTA needs to justify a teacher's rights and responsibilities:

> NTA has some viewpoints which are not right. They state that they nominally fight for teachers' rights, but I think that in-service training should be a teacher's right and also an obligation. (TS2H interview)

To mention the two organisations, NTA and NUT, in this sub-section is to see how the latter can throw light on the former. NUT's strong leadership and a clear demand for action guides teachers in a consistent action across England to support its negotiation with the

government, such as industrial action for increasing teachers' salaries. However, one should note that teachers' striking is legal in England, but not in Taiwan. In order to empower NTA's negotiation ability, the legislation must be amended to allow industrial action. For members of the NTA, criticism or misunderstanding from some teachers may be a big blow, but this is relatively insignificant and can be disregarded.

8.2 The Social Values of TE

The implementation of TE in Taiwan is explored in terms of 'social value' in this section. These values are conveyed through my interview data.

In general, social values are formed when "organizations adapt to social requirements for legitimacy, and therefore, over time, there will be an increasing convergence in values" (Dowling & Pfeiffer, 1975). The social value referred to here is demanded by Taiwanese society, as viewed through my interviewees' perspectives. They are the core values which underpin the quality of the entire society, such as "teacher's capacity to meet the changing society" and "the sustainable quality of education". Taiwanese society, under the pressure of globalisation, requires accountability and professionalism in all trades and professions to survive in the international arena (as described in Section 2.1). Therefore, in the teaching profession, professionalism and accountability are also postulated.

8.2.1 Teachers' Capacity to Meet the Changing Society

Nowadays, various professions in Taiwan have begun assessing their organisational effectiveness through evaluation, not only to enhance the results of accountability through this mechanism, but to eliminate inadequate sections. With fast economic growth, the atmosphere in Taiwanese society is full of vitality.

> When the "Martial Law" was lifted, the entire community became fully vibrant, pluralistic, and dynamic in Taiwan... (TS1T3 interview)

However, the influence of Western rationalism caused this society to re-examine core social values that were established by metaphysics in traditional society. Through deconstructing and re-conceptualising these traditional cultures, contemporary meanings and values are brought out (see Chapter 2). The same situation is happening in the field of education.

> In the past, teachers were well-respected as part of the ideology of Heaven, Earth, Sovereign, Parents and Teacher [天地君親師, things to be respected according to Confucian thought]. The status of teachers was considered to be very high, and

> they were never commented upon. The expectation [of educational accountability/evaluation] doesn't accord with our traditional culture. (TOS interview)
>
> ...the parents must have expectations; in particular, there are 'aggressive' parents who are successful in their careers and carry high hopes for their children... (TS1T3 Interview)

Expectation, as described here, is a complicated concept, but it is more likely to point towards: 1) how the teacher "meets the changing society", and 2) "the sustainable quality of education". However, there needs to be an objective standardising mechanism to maintain the sustainability of education in Taiwanese society.

> Through evolution, the educational paradigm has also been subjected to change.
>
> The teacher education policies in the U.K. and U.S. are market-oriented, so it is not surprising that they attach great importance to teacher evaluation. Although Taiwan isn't previously market-oriented, it now is. How do you maintain the quality of teachers if you don't attach importance to teacher evaluation? This is a tricky issue. (TOL interview)

Since the pluralisation of teacher education in 1994 (see Section 2.3.2), the paradigm of teacher training moved from "paternalism" to "market-orientedness". Not only is this social change characterised by a shift in paradigm, but it also reached a wider (i.e. international) context. Regarding Taiwanese students' performance in international mathematics and science assessment tests, as pointed out in *The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study* (TIMSS) in 2007, the performance in mathematics of Taiwan's Year 8 students ranked first in the world, whilst in science projects, Taiwan was second best. Among Year 4 students, Taiwan's mathematics performance ranked third in the world, and in science, they were placed second (cited from http://nces.ed.gov/timss/). Comparing students' superior performance in international competitions, teachers are requested to achieve such high levels in Taiwanese society. Simultaneously, in mainland China, education has been reformed through the Teacher Grading System, which demands that teachers maintain a certain quality.

> In China, most schools have an "advanced skills teacher" (特級教師), or in specific areas, there are several "advanced skill teachers". If you are the advanced skills teacher, you can evaluate other teachers. Generally, the advanced skill teacher teaches fewer lessons than the other teachers, as his/her task is to enhance others' professionalism. Therefore, not only are his/her qualifications better, but his/her reputation is also undoubtedly higher. (TS1H interview)
>
> In China, if you are the "advanced skills teacher", you receive greater respect from others. They see you as a very professional teacher. They often trust

him/her more and feel comfortable bringing their children to him/her [as their students]. (TS1T1 interview)

The Teacher Grading System in China is subjective: it is standardised according to social expectations. Hence, for Taiwanese society to be able to meet the demands of its continuing growth, there should also be a corresponding progress in teachers' professionalism.

> For promoting the quality of teaching, I believe that TE will bring appropriate pressure to teachers. People do not want too much pressure. It is reasonable that teachers have the same views; I [teacher] certainly do not want this. However, if I am the decision-maker, of course I want to exert such a pressure. The right amount [of pressure] helps to improve the teaching quality ... I believe that teachers are willing to accept it. (TS2T1 interview)

From the interview data and the discussion in the previous section, teachers have already perceived that the times are changing, and a certain degree of pressure is inevitable. Hence, a teacher's belief, psychological status, and his/her relationship with parents and other priorities or values all need to be re-adjusted.

> During the education reform in the last decade, teachers' beliefs have dramatically changed. To be honest, we have noticed that the teacher–parent relationship was previously conservative, and it is now more open. Previously, their interaction was also very stiff, but now they are more like "partners" or "comrades". (TS1H interview)

The aim of such changes is in accordance with the trend of the times, that is, it complies with the international trend. However the more important purpose is to ensure the quality of the education provided.

8.2.2 The Sustainable Quality of Education

Currently, the Teacher Achievement Assessment System in Taiwan is not designed to encourage teachers with good performances (described in my previous chapter). Educators expect a TE system to have precise indicators and accurate ways to recognise good teachers through their motivated behaviour. The government substantially maintains educational quality through the subjective system of TE.

> Firstly, the results of evaluation must be graded based on a certain level. For example, a teacher who is given an *A* grade should receive a greater reward than one who is given a *B*. If we implement the assessment, it could potentially harm the relationship between colleagues. Is the current system really implemented as true "evaluation"? Take, for example, the draw system [like a raffle]. Is that a reasonable evaluation system? If the final evaluation adopts this method, it will not be entirely accurate; hence, it is difficult to persuade everyone to accept this system. (TS2H interview)

The system mentioned by TS2H is the current implementation of "Civil Servants Achievement Assessment Method". According to the regulation, only 75% of staff can be ranked *A*. Its purpose is to prevent the abuse of assessment, but such a system fails to serve its purpose. Workers would be graded with a *B* at some stage during their service; thus we can see why this is not accepted by teachers. Although most teachers tend to support the implementation of TE, all teachers hope that its design will provide an accurate reflection of their abilities.

> In Tai-Nan County, the TE System stipulates that only 10% of all the teachers can be given an *A*. *De facto*, teachers feel that this occupation [teacher] is not cosy any more... Many teachers went to graduate school for self-improvement. Consequently, the proportion of teachers studying in institutes of higher education is very high. Another way is to facilitate personal growth at school. I believe that this approach will be adopted only by some teachers. Of course, TE is partly manipulated by the national mechanism. Therefore, teachers who can feel the pressure will resist the changes and react towards it. (TS2T2 interview)

The pressure on teachers includes stress induced from the public examination of their abilities. Also, an overall declining birth rate brings serious consequences to the teaching profession in Taiwan. Because of the reduction in enrolments, schools are required to reduce the number of classes. Thus, a teacher's job reaches a level of unprecedented instability. One of the schools that participated in my interviews faced this issue in 2009. The teachers felt a serious threat. If they were forced to accept arrangements for transferring to another school, they worried that they might be labelled as "inadequate teachers".

> We are considered as a part of the old community in Wan-Hua District. The problem of a "declining birth rate" [in our area] is more serious than in the other schools. Our school has been developing gradually in the past four years. It was previously passive. Formerly, some pressure came from Elementary School A [anonymous], now there is also Elementary School B [anonymous]. These "superstar" schools are situated nearby. During those years, many teachers have already retired and new teachers have been coming in. This has had some impact on the whole school. These years have seen a dramatic development. The other school teachers would ask us how we made such progress. For instance, they wanted to know how teacher professional development was set up in our school. (TS2T2 interview)

The development of a school, according to TS2T2, is based on the pressure which comes from social expectations. Many parents used to compare policies in their children's school with those of other schools. If different measures are implemented in other schools, they expect that their children's school can also follow in their footsteps. Therefore, a certain degree of pressure comes from parents' expectations.

> There is at least some pressure from parents. For example, because we are in the same community, parents would say "since Secondary School C is implementing teacher evaluation, why can't we as a primary school do so too? How can we lag behind others?" As you can see, there is a hidden pressure here. (TS1H interview)

From the discussion above, factors like a "declining birth rate", "the comparisons with schools in the vicinity" and "parents' expectations" could be the source of a school's pressure. This transforms into a force that influences the quality of education. Therefore, the expectation could be that education of a high quality is substantially maintained by a social mechanism. The mechanism could well be TE, since quality assurance conforms to one of TE's social values. Consequently, greater efficiency can be brought out under social pressure. Thus, we could say that TE is the *sine qua non* for such social values viz. "the teacher's capacity to meet the changing society" and "the sustainable quality of education".

8.3 The School Values from TE

In this section, TE's values in the school context are explored in relation to five dimensions: 1) the formation of a school vision, 2) promotion of school climate and culture, 3) school's reputation, 4) professional dialogue, and 5) tool of knowledge management. My discussion will be interwoven with teachers', head teachers' and officers' viewpoints.

8.3.1 The Formation of a School Vision

Having a vision for education is central to school leadership, because vision is a source of motivation and energy. It powerfully shapes practice within a community. Thus vision needs to be understood, articulated and owned by the entire school community. It provides a source of inspiration and a frame of reference for developing professional values, such as knowledge, people (especially teachers, their worth and potential) and society.

Not only does a school vision describe how good a school is, but it also highlights the school's potential for development. Ritchie and Woods (2007) studied ten schools, which were identified as having good practice, and they found that these schools have explicit values, ethos and aims. The vision should be constituted by all its members' individual career development. These members' professional development should also be consistent with their school vision. Therefore, an efficient leader knows the organisation's worth and potential, so that s/he can organise these concepts into the school vision and highlight their values. The monitoring of such a vision will ensure the quality of the school and TE can be

a good mechanism for this purpose. In other words, teachers' professionalism is effected by TE.

> As a teacher, you have to let people realise that not only are the administrators professional, but the same can also be said about teachers. Teachers are now changing, and such a change influences their elected representatives. During the process, I always suggest to our leader that s/he should take all the responsibilities. S/he must tell us his/her expectations, so that we can help him/her realise the school's vision...this is a positive interaction; in contrast to saying, "you do not have the ability", "I think you will like this" and then "just follow my direction". Everything I do depends on your attitude and treatment. If you are sincere in your communication with me, I will follow you. [Pygmalion Effect] It is a virtuous circle, isn't it? (TS1T2 interview)

From the comments above, it can be found that the teacher expects her head teacher to know how professional she is. She claims that the head teacher should know all the school teachers' professionalism in order to organise human capital in the school vision, so that the school's efficiency can be empowered, i.e. the quality of education can be improved. Although this interviewee applies the "Pygmalion Effect" to describe "approving school teachers' professionalism" as the first step in the "virtuous circle", I suggest using TE to accurately justify one's professionalism. School teachers' professionalism is congregated and converged into a set of values by TE, and these values will underpin a school's development; otherwise, the development will become a "hydra headed" phenomenon which not only obstructs the schools growth, but also reduces its efficiency.

> Various development projects in school should be designed to go with the school vision. If you ask teachers how school visions are generated, they do not know the answer. Perhaps only a few administrative staff and several people, who subscribe to the vision, know how it is done. They then publicly announce the school vision, images of students and teachers and the whole decision-making process. But this vision is not developed in this way in other countries. In these countries, it follows the bottom–up system: the vision is solidly built up. For example, in a teachers' admission assessment, you [teacher] have to at least understand what the vision of the school is. ...but in Taiwan, it is difficult, because the school vision is not implemented. Thus, many school curriculum plans are not consistent with it. (TOT interview)

My experience differs from that of TOT. When I was a head teacher, we attended a series of meetings to discuss and construct the annual curriculum plans for my school. From the school's goal, SWOT analysis and all subjects' curriculum plans are gradually elaborated. TS1H and TS2H claimed that their school visions were designed using the same process. As Ritchie and Woods found, the characteristics of a "good school" include staff's involvement in "creating, sharing and developing a collective vision" (2007: 374). Hence,

TE can serve as a tool for exploring professionalism, and the relevant results can underpin the formation of a school vision.

8.3.2 Promotion of School Climate and Culture

Hollins (1996) argues that "schools are shaped by cultural practices and values and reflect the norms of the society for which they have been developed" (p. 31). Social values are a major ingredient of school culture. Generally, the ideologies of society and the communities surrounding individual schools become reflected in this culture. According to the University of Texas at Austin's description, *school culture* is "the behind-the-scenes context that reflects the values, beliefs, norms, traditions, and rituals that build up over time as people in a school work together"(Austin, 2009). Also, school culture is variously defined by rituals, expectations, relationships, curricular focus, extra-curricular activities, decision-making processes, and graduation requirements. (Small School Project, 2009: http://www.smallschoolsproject.org/PDFS/culture.pdf) This includes the obvious elements of schedules, curriculum, demographics, and policies, as well as the social interactions within those structures that give a school its character as a "friendly," "elite," "competitive," "inclusive," environment.

The concept of *school climate* has been described in various research as "number and quality of interactions between adults and students" (Kuperminc, Leadbeater & Blatt, 2001), "students' and teachers' perception of their school environment, or the school's personality" (Johnson, Johnson, & Zimmerman, 1996), "environmental factors (for example, the physical buildings and classrooms, and materials used for instruction)", "academic performance" (Johnson & Johnson, 1993), "feelings of safeness and school size" (Freiberg, 1998) and "feelings of trust and respect for students and teachers" (Manning & Saddlemire, 1996). School climate is multi-dimensional and influences many individuals, including students, parents, school personnel, and community. Additionally, school climate can significantly influence the educational environment. (Centre for Research on School Safety, School Climate and Classroom Management, cited from http://education.gsu.edu/schoolsafety/download%20files/wp%202002%20school%20climate.pdf)

From the discussion above, school culture and climate are defined from a global view. Since the topic of my study is the implementation of TE in Taiwan, my standpoint comes from the implementers' perspectives. Therefore, school culture and climate are defined by

"values", "tradition", "ritual", "relationship", "design-making process", "feelings of trust" and "respect for teachers". Moreover, I made an assumption that TE influences and shapes school climate and culture, either in a positive or negative way. I will explore this in detail in the rest of Section 8.3.2.

Teachers are traditionally respected in Taiwanese society (described in Chapter 2). Although such a concept has been changing since 1987, many parents still offer gifts to their children's teachers on Teachers' Day (28th September, which is the birthday of Confucius).

> For example, parents, in the Wan-Hua District, evoked the atmosphere of the past. They send gifts to teachers during traditional festivals [e.g. Mid-Autumn Festival]. And we really felt that teachers were respected at that time. This kind of atmosphere still existed when I graduated [in 1999]. (TS2T2 interview)

This is a traditional concept influenced by a social ideology which is stable and sustainable. However, a teacher's status will be reconstructed by TE if this mechanism is employed to confirm his/her professionalism.

Some teachers were willing to go through personal development in the early days (a decade ago), but they were restricted by regulation. For example, only 5% of the teachers in each school were allowed to apply for study leave at the same time. More recently, teachers have been asked to develop their professionalism; in other words, they are encouraged to engage in relevant in-service learning.

> Previously, when I received an MA degree, I was the second person to have acquired such a degree in the school I was working in. However, there were many teachers with a Masters degree in other schools at that time. I needed to apply for a permit to further my studies. The personnel officer complained that I was a troublemaker. He never dealt with that before, so that made him obsessed. The culture was really strange at that time, and it is hard to imagine. My views seem quite exaggerated, but they are true. The story is different now. I think that teachers have changed their culture, especially the culture of in-service training. (TS2T2 interview)

The value of professional development is shaped by social growth. In-service training is considered as the essence of professionalism, when teacher teaching skills are evaluated by TE. Sometimes, such a development promotes self-awareness.

> ...for example, I have been teaching for eleven years, but they were very embarrassing years. I claimed that I was very professional and very experienced, but, in fact, I was not. Teaching is a difficult and complicated process. We know that students are changing, and they have been making progress. But what about teachers? (TS2T2 interview)

TS2T2 sees the connection between the experiment of TEPD and the Mentor Teacher System. She mentioned that the experience brought personal growth, and she started to be concerned about her professional development.

> ...after teaching for a long time, sometimes the teacher repeats the same material again and again, so s/he will feel very bored...
>
> ...However, when we mentor young teachers, it will in fact benefit my teaching. I can learn a lot from new teachers in certain respects (e.g. good computer skills). Although I might teach better, we can still help each other. We can focus on familiarising ourselves with the teaching material, which I will be a little better at. Therefore, s/he will promote his/her skill in this respect, while I can benefit from my cooperation...
>
> ...When I prepare to be observed, I will begin to pay attention to how I can enhance my teaching ability. From this perspective, I know that I am undergoing self-development. I will recall useful ideas or comments which I can adopt in my teaching. It will change my teaching skills, so that I do not merely repeat things. (TS2T2 interview)

According to Article 5 in *The Experimental Plan of Teacher Profession Development Evaluation*, the implementation of TEPD adopts the principle of voluntary processing, i.e. schools and teachers take part voluntarily. Such a system is widely accepted by teachers in democratic practices. Under the bureaucratic system of education, administration often prevails over teaching professionalism. Hence, teachers follow administrative provisions so that administrators can conveniently do their jobs. Now the decision-making process is more democratic: the administrative staffs have changed their leadership model and attitude from being superior to being able to offer their service. TS2T3 described the process of implementation of TEPD in his school.

> The most important aspect for promoting TEPD is mutual trust. If administrators do not maintain a good relationship with teachers, the latter will not adhere to what they say. None of the teachers are willing to participate in the experiment, after their Director of Educational Affairs Division made an announcement in several schools in the vicinity. So the two stipulations are very strange. On the one hand, the schools' head teacher and teachers volunteer to do so; on the other hand, it has to pass through the school meeting. Some head teachers want to implement TEPD but it is hard to pass through the school meeting... (TS2T3 interview)

The decision-making process of whether or not TEPD should be implemented is more democratic in schools. The administrator's concepts and ideas are clearer after the negotiation meeting, not only for him/herself, but also for all other members of the school.

> ... School teachers may not participate [in the experiment], or the administrators are not willing to take it on. The key role is played by the Director of Educational Affairs Division. If s/he does not agree, the sector will be confused. Firstly, there

is no clear understanding. Secondly, there is no sense of identity. If you have to actively persuade the teachers, you must [first] convince yourself. If you do not handle the administrative measures well, school teachers will not want to be involved in the experiment next year. The implementation of TEPD appears to work well in the beginning. If we implement [TEPD] according to MoE's plan, it could scare school teachers. School teachers are evaluated one by one. If s/he fails in the TEPD, s/he will be mentored. A trial peer evaluation was carried out last month, and one's teaching portfolio. According to the MoE's stipulation, three members should do the teaching observation, and one of them is the academic administrator or one who promotes the TEPD team. There is too much pressure for teachers, or it gives teachers the feeling that administrators are always doing administrative work in the process. Finally we were asked to complete all tasks... Nowadays, it is not easy to cheat teachers because they are very smart... (TS2T3 interview)

Although school administrators have increasingly changed their service attitude with the times, teachers' perspective of them is still conservative. The interviewee suggests the qualities that a suitable leader should possess:

...regarding the teacher's perspective on the head teacher, there are two contrasting viewpoints in Taiwan. If the head teacher is a senior or is highly qualified, teachers will obey you. In contrast, they may not obey a senior head teacher, because s/he may not be skilled in teaching, or what we call an LKK [Taiwanese language, means old guy]. If a head teacher is highly educated, other teachers may think that s/he is "better" only on paper [as s/he has more certificates], but not in teaching. Therefore, no matter how [good] the head teacher is, s/he is always subjected to these two types of criticism. To be honest, I believe that a head teacher with certain experiences will be suitable, and if he can continue to pursue further education, he would be able to promote [TEPD] with less resistance... (TS3H interview)

An efficient head teacher is more motivated to persuade teachers to attend school activities, or be involved in experiments. Otherwise, teachers hold a negative attitude towards the school administration.

I have been an administrator for 10 years. Based on my experiences, teachers sometimes obey you when they like you. If not, you achieve nothing. For example, in the in-service training, the most difficult part is not to invite a professor or to apply for funding, but to ask teachers to attend it. That embarrasses me. (TS2T3 interview)

The trust between administrators and teachers plays a key role in school culture and climate. It brings out the quality of the school culture. For example, the Teachers' Association in School 1 (as defined in Chapter 4) supports the implementation of TEPD. The reason is that they trust their head teacher's intentions.

The chief of the Teachers' Association in our school this year said that he was looking forward to our teachers becoming more professional. Some chiefs in

> other schools would say please trust this policy "I have much confidence in our head teacher, trust in this policy. As long as you promote TEPD, we will support you". This may be a mere show of support on the surface. The actual operation is still waiting to be executed. (TS1H interview)

With teachers' and parents' support, the implementation of TEPD is more thorough, and has a more prominent effect. In other words, TEPD provides a platform for dialogue and cooperation for parents, teachers and the school, which helps to promote the quality of education for the whole community.

> ...the parents and colleagues have the willingness to persevere [in TEPD]. They are not afraid of hard work. The effect of this situation can be proved from various evidences. There are also some teachers, especially resistant ones, who would make some sarcastic remarks. They may have a very good insight or a better way. I think we can accept it [their way]. After all, the most important thing is to bring about changes for individuals. We hope that the change from the teachers' beliefs can provide a good example for the kids. (TS1H interview)

In addition, the 'superior' administrative team should also trust teachers and believe that teachers can autonomously implement observations in classrooms and enhance teaching quality through knowledge-sharing. Since teachers frequently claim, from my data, that they have a heavy workload every day, the administrative unit should give them the right to justify their workload and to reduce unnecessary work.

> Establishing habituation and culture is different [from the ways of the past]. Adaptation is a slow process. I do hope that the superior administration can trust teachers. They should recentralise the rights of teachers, so that teachers are able to reduce unnecessary work. (TS1H interview)

Bureaucratic culture is the most common organisational culture in educational practice. It can be defined by the "misuse of power", "poor decision-making", "political interference", "failure in regional contexts", "managerial frustration", "job dissatisfaction", "low creativity", "organizational conflict" and "other dysfunctions" (Jain, 2004: 3). According to Claver *et al.* (1999), this culture is characterised by "hierarchy", "authoritarianism", centralization", "abeyance of orders", "little communication", "high degree of conformity", and "reluctance to change" (P. 459). Those concepts, such as "poor decision-making", "managerial frustration", "job dissatisfaction", "organizational conflict", "little communication", "high degree of conformity", "reluctance to change" and so on, are illustrated in the discussion in this section. The implementation of TEPD exerts some pressure on school staff. For example, one interviewee, TS3T, claims that, "the head teacher asked all administrators to join the experiment by force".

Research generally indicates that school climate and culture can affect many areas and people within schools. For example, a positive school climate has been associated with fewer behavioural and emotional problems for students (Kuperminc *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, research on school climate in a high-risk environment shows that a positive, supportive, and culturally-conscious school climate can significantly shape the degree of academic success experienced by students (Haynes & Comer, 1993). In addition, researchers have found that perceptions of a positive school climate are protective factors for boys and may supply high-risk students with a supportive learning environment thereby yielding healthy development and preventing anti-social behaviour (Haynes, 1998; Kuperminc *et al.*, 1997). According to my interviewees' descriptions, TE can enhance the positive school climate, so it benefits students' learning.

8.3.3 School's Reputation

One of the responsibilities of a school leader is to create pro-community relations and a positive and effective training for its staff. There are certain measures to enhance a school's reputation and create confidence, and TE is an efficient way. According to the "National Statistics" of the MoE in Taiwan, there are 2,657 primary schools and 740 secondary schools in the academic year 2008 (cited from http://www/edu.tw/files/site_content/B0013/overview38.xls), of which 178 primary school and 67 secondary schools were participating in the TE experiment implemented by the MoE (see Table 7-4). The proportion of schools participating in this experiment is 6.7% at the primary-school level, and 9% at the secondary-school level. The general belief was that secondary schools participation in the TE experiment was lower than that of primary schools, but the ratio of participation was actually higher.

Generally, secondary school students are required to take an "Entrance Examination" (like GCSE in England) in Taiwan. The aim of one's teaching performance is to improve the rate of those entering "star" schools (which means a higher ratio of entry into high school). Thus, if secondary schools were involved in a research project, the implementation of TE is regarded as more challenging.

> I believe that, the best Teachers' Association in Taiwan is found in Secondary School *C*, because only the Teacher Association in this school promotes TEPD. And almost all its teachers participated in the experiment. Most Teacher Associations resist this experiment; Secondary School *C* was one of the only schools that executed it [at the secondary school level]. (TS1H interview)

This view is consistent with my experience. During my term as a head teacher, many parents questioned the motive behind teachers' resistance towards TE. In their views, college teachers accepted TE because their reputation was monitored through such a mechanism, so they believe that TE can also benefit primary school teachers.

During the meetings between the Teachers' Association and Parents' Association in my school, the latter demanded that primary school teachers accept TE according to the TE model used to assess university professors. When primary school teachers claimed that TE had no legal basis at the primary-school level, parents tried to persuade them to accept such an evaluation for self-improvement. This corresponded to their belief that TE is able to offer an education of high quality.

8.3.4 Facilitating Professional Dialogue and the Establishment of Knowledge Management in Schools

The traditional teachers' culture was characterised by the lack of professional dialogue. The heavy workload of teachers limited the time available for dialogue. There was only time for teaching, so a teacher's life was relatively "closed" (with little communication between colleagues). If there was time for dialogue between teachers, it usually meant informal chatting. When I was a child, my father often invited his colleagues to our house, and the conversation topic was often about local politics. The conversation topics of my mother and her colleagues were centred on cooking and the cultivation of good values in their children.

Prior to 1987, "teacher dialogue" was often not related to professionalism in Taiwan's educational practice. In addition to the aforementioned reasons, educational research in Taiwan was scarce. Teachers have always been regarded as "cultural reproducing machines" for the state. In the Martial Law era, teachers were an important tool for conveying a nationalistic ideology. The main work of teachers was to convey and implement national policies, and that did not require any expert thinking (for example "curriculum design"). In Taiwan, teachers have been seen as professionals since the lifting of *the Martial Law* in 1987. Within a short period of time, the government scheduled weekly Wednesday afternoons as the training session for teachers. In these sessions, scholars or experts may be invited to lecture about education-related issues. School meetings can also be arranged so that teachers have the opportunity for professional dialogue.

> Teachers' conversations are always about what they want to teach each week. The dialogue is rarely focused on professional development. If there is sufficient discussion of the latter [professional dialogue], the teaching culture would change. I thought the teachers' culture in Primary School "A" has changed, but it [the previous culture] still persists. However, the change is gradually happening [in transition]. As a teacher, we cannot allow ourselves to loosen up all day, because you [teacher] have to face the parents; they have certain demands. This is really an issue: the teacher's work is always competitive. So I would think that teachers' culture should be constituted by this type of dialogue, and such a process should be promoted. (TS2T2 interview)

After facilitating the teachers' culture, teacher professional development is regarded as a way to boost self-esteem. In other words, teacher attitude ought to shift from the passive to the positive by seeking opportunities in personal development. This culture is being continuously constructed.

> Why do we need so-called "accurate indicators" of TEPD which are drawn from school teachers' dialogue? Teachers are always used to the idea that you [government] give me [teacher] directions. Why should I be required to do this [teacher dialogue]? This is a process, perhaps teachers are to go through it for a few years, even over 10 years. We will gradually find that the teachers themselves are professionals. (TOS interview)

To design teacher professional dialogue, some strategies should be considered. Since it is a dialogue, the premise includes smooth communication and unhindered propaganda. If there is any confusion in school announcements, the staff should not be puzzled by the school's intentions. One interviewee had a negative experience.

> For example, I am the person in charge of this project [TEPD]. I would frequently remind them [the other teachers] that they should attend the meeting on a certain day, because we will be talking about [an important issue]..., if they do not attend this meeting, they will not know the agenda. ... We are always making announcements, because there is no formal way of advertising. (TS2T2 interview)

While the aforementioned problem often occurs in school, it does not mean that there are no formal ways to make announcement. Generally, school policies are publicly announced in the morning meeting. However, in Taiwanese culture, teachers have to be reminded over and over again. Consequently, the teacher who is in charge of the project (TEPD) feels frustrated and powerless. This issue recurs in the recruitment of participants (for TEPD).

> We talked to teachers about recruiting participants. We hoped that they would be able to participate in this project..., because it was not supported by the legislation. But this depended on teachers' devotion...., I have always felt that external resources are relatively limited. Most initiatives were designed by us. Our director constructs the plan and tells us what to do. (TS2T2 interview)

When these concepts were designed by teachers' discussion, the process of discussion can combine teachers' consensus. The project is designed as the goal of school development. Hence, when confronted with the issue above, TE can be used to establish a mechanism of knowledge management in school to enhance the school's efficiency and improve teacher's professionalism.

In their "Organizational Knowledge Creation Theory", Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) claim that "dialogue" is a key step in knowledge management. According to their theory, a new organisational knowledge is formed by different types of knowledge, and it is generated by the interaction between individuals. The different types of knowledge include:

- Socialization (from individual tacit knowledge to group tacit knowledge);
- Externalization (from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge);
- Combination (from separate explicit knowledge to the integration of explicit knowledge);
- Internalization (from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge).

TE is an effective way of justifying teachers' professionalism, i.e. the school's intelligent capital. That is the first step towards "making knowledge visible" based on the knowledge management drawn by Boynton (1996). A head teacher should realise teachers' professionalism to effectively manage his/her school's intelligent capital. It is a process of socialisation (in Nonaka and Takeuchi terms) from teachers' professionalism (individual tacit knowledge) to a school's intelligent capital (group tacit knowledge). Sharing is an effective way of moving from the tacit to the explicit. For example, one interviewee said:

> We will always share some information during the teachers' morning meeting, or through various assemblies. We brought some resources, such as the professor's lecture, to share with all colleagues. Even if they did not participate, they would still be able to share the experience. I also believe that those who participate in the in-service training are often willing to tell people their experience. (TS1H interview)

Not only does the head teacher discuss new information with his/her colleagues, but s/he also shares persuasive experiences of teachers who participate in meetings. These new ideas will gradually permeate through teachers.

> ... I hope that every participant will gain something when the project finishes [in a year's time]. Not only will it benefit the teacher, but I hope that s/he can share

> the successful experience with other colleagues, so that they are willing to participate in this experiment in future. Also [hopefully] those who are reluctant to join will not object to the policy when the government starts implementing TE. (TS1H interview)

Generally, meetings and assemblies offer a link from "externalization" to "combination", they hope to integrate the explicit knowledge. Such knowledge does not only benefit participating teachers, but also improves the other teacher through sharing experiences. These sharing experiences could be integrated as school's knowledge. Such integration could be visible in the school's vision or invisible in a school's intelligent capital. The strategy of "learning by doing" can be transferred from "combination" to "internalization". Observation is a good way to learn.

> A class teacher has the rare opportunity to enter into other teachers' classes to observe [the way they teach]. Such experiences of professional growth are, unfortunately, not generally shared. (TS2T2 interview)

Class teachers normally spend most of their time in classrooms. Such behaviour hinders their professional development. TE provides interactive learning opportunities through peer-observation. Therefore, one's teaching professionalism can be improved by strengthening those indicators of the effective teaching as defined in the TE system.

The discussion above points out that TE could improve the quality of teacher professional dialogue from the ontology of the "knowledge management spiral", namely "socialization", "externalization", "combination" and "internalization". Also, a number of important tips can help to support schools to develop TE.

> We should encourage the positive, which is to directly encourage and reward [teachers]. And then it will influence the stubborn teacher, as s/he can gradually feel the difference. Parents can create this atmosphere at school. As a result, they [teachers] will feel the pressure, and will slowly move forward. Even if they do not, this idea will be imprinted in their minds. So they are in fact making progress: their conservative ideas become "loose"..., [and] the concepts cannot be fixed, because there are two different elements within the same field... (TS2T2 interview)

Some stages described by TS2T2 can be illustrated as follows:

> Encourage → Awards → Atmosphere → Motivation → Dialogue → Sustainable growth

In an efficient school, staff often regards themselves as learners. As Ritchie and Woods pointed out, even the head teacher calls himself/herself the head learner who "was seen by staff and pupils as role modelling what it means to be a learner" (2007: 373). This is based on the implementation of TE to establish knowledge management.

8.4 The Personal Values for Teachers Gained from TE

In this section, the personal values for teachers from TE are explored theoretically. Based on my empirical data, the following personal values can be discerned: teachers' social status, reputation, dignity, and self-esteem.

8.4.1 Social Status

Accountability, especially with regard to teaching, is considered to be a teacher's responsibility. This is because good accountability maintains the quality of education. Hence, teachers who are able to meet the criteria of TE will have a chance to promote their "social status", or the honour or prestige attached to their social position. The position or rank of teachers within the stratification system, can be determined in two ways. They can earn their social status by their own achievements, and this is known as accountability. Alternatively, they can be replaced in the stratification system by other people. This is called unity status.

Unfortunately, many teachers' social status in Taiwan has declined. This is because Taiwanese society is asked to re-examine teachers' social status during the social reform movement, and some negative media reports made an impact on the image of teachers. When Taiwan became a country ruled by law, a social value based on the mysticism of value theory is not permitted. TE can act as the key mechanism to confirm teaching efficiencies in order to re-build teachers' social status.

> Nowadays, many media reports about teachers are often negative; hence, the image of the teacher is seriously affected. In addition, parents want to understand what is happening at school. These parents try to change and affect a teacher's teaching through such a system [TE], based on their [parents'] ideas and their standpoint. (TS1T1 interview)

"Opening up", is the key indicator for a democratic society. For example, teachers' training (described in Chapter 2) was constituted by the government, but it is gradually opening up nowadays. Any college can institute their own teacher training programme. However, most teachers disagree with the view above. They believe that teachers who graduated from the "Normal College" (school for training elementary teachers) are more professional than those who graduated from other universities. Some teachers believe that TE can control the quality of teaching after teachers' training is diversified. TS2T3 is one of those who advocate this view. He said:

> After teachers' training is diversified, parents do not trust the quality of the teacher. ... TE can be a mechanism for maintaining the quality of teaching in primary schools, so that the society and parents are more relieved...I feel that the TE is a gatekeeper of teaching quality and helps to build a teacher's image. Therefore, the communities of parents are assured of it [the teaching quality]. (TS2T3 interview)

The values of TE are not only to control, but also to improve the teachers' quality. In other words, the TE system combines the values of accountability and professionalism. TOL characterises this relationship, stating that:

> So far we confirm that TE helps teachers to improve their teaching as well as the quality of education. Thus, the attractive factor is that once your teaching is improved, the parents will be satisfied with it. If the parents are satisfied, the quality of education has been enhanced. (TOL interview)

Parents' satisfaction can serve as a reference in teacher evaluation, but it is not the *sine qua non*. Through the symbiotic process above, teachers' professionalism is confirmed, thereby helping to reconstruct and elevate their social status. The official certificate of teaching could be the best proof of a teacher's ability. TS1T2 suggested that:

> ... The MoE and the Bureau of Education do undertake some measures to enhance the professional development of teachers. These certificates and documents can be more positive for teachers, and can benefit the interaction between parents and teachers. They [the certificates] are helpful. (TS1T2 interview)

From the perspectives of accountability of managerialism and the improvement of professionalism, TE is an efficient mechanism to maintain the educational quality and to enhance teaching, so that teacher's social status can be reconstructed.

8.4.2 Reputation

Professional development is essential for a teacher in terms of personal value. Teachers who achieve TE's standards will earn themselves a good "reputation". Reputation can be considered as a component of the identity as defined by others. It is known to be a highly efficient mechanism of social control. Its influence ranges from competitive settings, like markets, to cooperative ones, like firms, organisations, institutions and communities. Furthermore, reputation acts on different levels of agency, that is, on the individual and the supra-individual. For teachers, not only will pursuing professional development benefit them, but it will also benefit their students. Consequentially, their professionalism will be disseminated into the community, and their reputation can thus be improved.

Traditionally, the classroom was a teacher's kingdom. Teachers were responsible for all the teaching and management in their classroom, so most teachers prefer not to have others' interfering with their managing and teaching. A teacher's reputation was previously constructed via a paternalistic ideology, without examination of its meaning in society. With the introduction of democratic and educational reforms, this concept will inevitably be changed. The door of the classroom is open during the process of TE; in other words, teachers have to face public evaluation. Hence, the classroom is no longer a teacher's kingdom, but the garden cultivated by the teacher for society.

> All teachers, including veteran and novice teachers, will be actively making preparations [such as teaching portfolio and observation] for the evaluation, so that TE will have a positive professional development for them. The final report of TEPD currently shows positive results, thereby helping teachers to gradually reduce their fears and pressure. Furthermore, teachers will [slowly] begin to accept the idea of classroom observation. (TS1T2 interview)

Interviewee TS3H sees TE as being analogous to "Chinese medicine": it examines people's diseases and provides a remedy based on the results of the examination. Differing from Western medicine, Chinese medicine not only treats patients' symptoms, but it also improves their physical well-being and enhances their immunity. This is an effective metaphor. TS1T1 provided an example:

> The teacher–student interaction is my weakness, that is, I am too serious in class. He [evaluator] reminded me about that, so I am more careful now. I should have more feedback and interaction with students. Also, my teaching skills need to be diversified. Although such skills merely serve as a tool, not a goal, I can diversify it to make my teaching more vivid. (TS1T1 interview)

Through evaluation, teachers' weaknesses are pointed out. Supporting measures, such as the Mentor Teacher System, provide a way for correcting and promoting their teaching. Further, teachers who attended the TEPD experiment show greater self-motivation that they are more enterprising and self-motivated. The positive school culture is formed by a number of teachers' professional dialogue and discussion. Thus, their attendance will benefit their school culture and increase the participation of other teachers. TS1T2 proposes an incentive:

> Regarding the reward system of the Bureau of Education, teachers who attend this experiment [TEPD] for two consecutive years will be publicly conferred a certificate by the Bureau. You can have a photo taken with the Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, so it is an honour.... This is a kind of reward. In fact, there are many rewards, but each person's needs are different. I propose the establishment of numerous reward systems, honour and substantial reward systems to deal with all these different aspects. (TS1T2 interview)

As TS1T2 suggested, the reward system can be diversified. Aside from being "photographed with the Commissioner" and "publicly gaining a certificate", TS1T2 further mentioned that evaluation should be carried out one dimension at a time. If a teacher is efficient in a certain dimension, s/he will gain an official reward.

> ...I think teachers are willing to do so [attend TEPD]. If the Bureau of Education intends to do something, they should give teachers an affirmation. I would think that a tangible or intangible reward is a positive approach. For example, we can stipulate in our administrative regulations that if they teach and interact well with students, they will be rewarded. Or we can evaluate teachers based on one criterion at a time. For instance, the focus can be on "curriculum and teaching" [a criterion of TEPD]; the school can then design these forms [such as self-evaluation or observation forms] by only concentrating on this aspect. Such a criterion is the most relevant for teachers. If they pass this project, they can gain some recognition, which may be a document or an announcement on the online bulletin. This will enhance teachers' personal development. (TS1T2 interview)

Generally, a teachers' reputation can be boosted through 1) the handing out of certificates of recognition by the official system, and 2) oral communication, i.e. by 'spreading the word' about one's excellent teaching skills within the community. Therefore, not only is TE an effective mechanism for evaluating teachers' performance, but it also provides the framework for improving teaching.

8.4.3 Dignity

Dignity can be explained as an honour which comes from one's position of excellence. Teachers gain their honour through certain mechanisms which confirm their teaching efficiencies. In other words, TE verifies their performance and influences teaching. TS1H claimed that:

> There are a number of professional teachers who are willing to accept the challenges individually. I think it is an honour. Further, parents will clearly realise that teachers are willing to work towards professional development through self-supervision. All teachers will gradually feel it [TE's importance]. (TS1H interview)

As mentioned in Section 7.3, the atmosphere of teachers pursuing excellence in their profession exerts a positive pressure. TS1T1 explained:

> ... However, an appropriate amount of pressure can become the teacher's assistant. In other words, the kind of stimulus pushes teachers to go forward. Without relevant measures, some teachers may be satisfied with what they now have, and they might not continue to change or subject their teaching to further improvement. (TS1T1 interview)

TE can promote teachers' reputation, through receiving feedback from parents and schools, lend an impetus (which come from the teacher's honour) to facilitate the professional development of teachers. In other words, teachers' honour forces them to progress, thereby producing self-dignity. Finally, teachers' professional development enhances their dignities through TE.

8.4.4 Self-Esteem

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, "self-esteem" is the reflection of a person's overall evaluation or appraisal of his/her own worth. In other words, it means a favourable appreciation or opinion of oneself (cited from http://dictionary.oed.com/cgi/entry/50218948?single=1&query_type=word&queryword=self-esteem&first=1&max_to_show=10). For example, teachers see TE as part of their professionalism.

> Interviewees TS1T1 and TS2H stated that:
>
> ... the emphasis is on the process [of TE] rather than the result, so I do not care about it [the certificate]. (TS1T1 interview)
>
> Regarding TEPD, we should not treat it aggressively, but effort should be made in the professional development of teachers. How does one achieve this? Only evaluation can examine a teacher's weaknesses. Since we have to understand our own shortcomings, it is necessary to design a personal development plan. (TS2H interview)

Self-esteem encompasses beliefs (for example, "I am competent/incompetent") and emotions (for example, triumph/despair and pride/shame). One's behaviour may reflect one's self-esteem (for example, assertiveness/shyness and confidence/caution). Therefore, psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem), although normal, short-term variations (state self-esteem) sometimes occur. Teachers can identify their strengths and deficiencies in teaching through TE. A good example of this is Interviewee TS1T1: TE made him realise that he should be more relaxed in his teaching, and he needed to improve his teacher--student interaction. He said:

> Through TE, I realised my weakness in teaching. I think this is one of the greatest benefits [of the system]. For example, I am a serious and strict teacher. I do, however, understand that the teacher–student interaction is useful, although because of my nature, I received very little feedback. Through filling in those forms [observation forms of TE], my evaluator would point out that I need to improve in this respect. (TS1T1 interview)

TS3T1 has the same view. Students can obtain teaching of a better quality when teachers' professional development is been promoted. She believes that TE benefits both the teacher and the students.

> ... [TE] assists teachers in their professional growth, enhances teaching quality, and enables a continuous self--reflection on their teaching. Mainly, [TE] is such a specialised mechanism which can be used to examine the standards of teaching, students' achievement and so on. (TS3T1 interview)

As an educator, my experience is that teachers have a heavy workload. The daily workload is often much more than what a teacher can cope with during school hours. Some parts of the work should be automatically executed, such as daily work, so that teachers can pay more attention to specific aspects. The TE system provides a framework for categorising teachers' daily workload, and the structure helps teachers examine their efficiencies. Such self-reflection enhances teachers' self-esteem. TS3T1 shared her experience:

> I have previously attended the "mentor teacher system". Initially, my teaching followed the curriculum plan, and the preparation was based on my concerns. In fact, I have been teaching for a long time, so the strategies of classroom management were readily available. We often paid more attention to the changes in activities of teaching and the teacher–student relationship. We are sensitive to them [the change and the relationship]. Of course, we hope to have a better performance in evaluation, so we focus on these dimensions. For example, teaching methods can be more innovative in order to inspire children to learn. (TS3T1 interview)

Expert teachers (for example, TS3T1) or novice ones (for example, TS1T1) often have the same experiences of development. Through TE, they solve their problems in teaching, make classroom management smoother and strengthen their inherent advantages in teaching, so they can boost their self-esteem.

However, by doing so, teachers feel the pressure of the teaching process, and they are also very concerned about it. Nevertheless, the in-depth discussion between teachers shows that peer review often results in positive teaching discussions. Teachers' anxiety immediately shifts to aspiration and trust, and this becomes established in a school's professional culture. When teachers have such a capacity for professional inspection, the school's culture will be filled with "sharing" and "self-reflection" and it is easier to reach a consensus for implementing TEPD.

8.5 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to demonstrate 1) teachers' general attitude towards TEPD, and 2) the values of TE through the data gathered from interviews.

The evidence shows that TE is accepted by most people - including officers, head teachers and teachers - as congruent with the popular values (see Section 8.1 as well as the Executive Yuan's Education Reform Commission General Consultation Report 1996). Also, educators, including Commissioners (the Bureau of Education) and samples of teachers and head teachers, are inclined to agree with TE (see Section 8.1.1).

Although, the general attitude appeared to be positive, teachers were still in doubt and frightened about evaluation (see Section 8.1.2). Teachers are suspicious of the government's intention; they think that TEPD prepares them for the Teacher Grading System, and it will eventually replace the previous Assessment of Teacher Achievement. The main reasons for NTA's continuous opposition are: 1) TEPD does not have a legal basis, and 2) NTA tried to put forward an alternative TE version, but this has yet to be constructed. Basically, however, they still support the concept of TE.

In the last three sections above, the values of TE were investigated based on Figure 8-1.

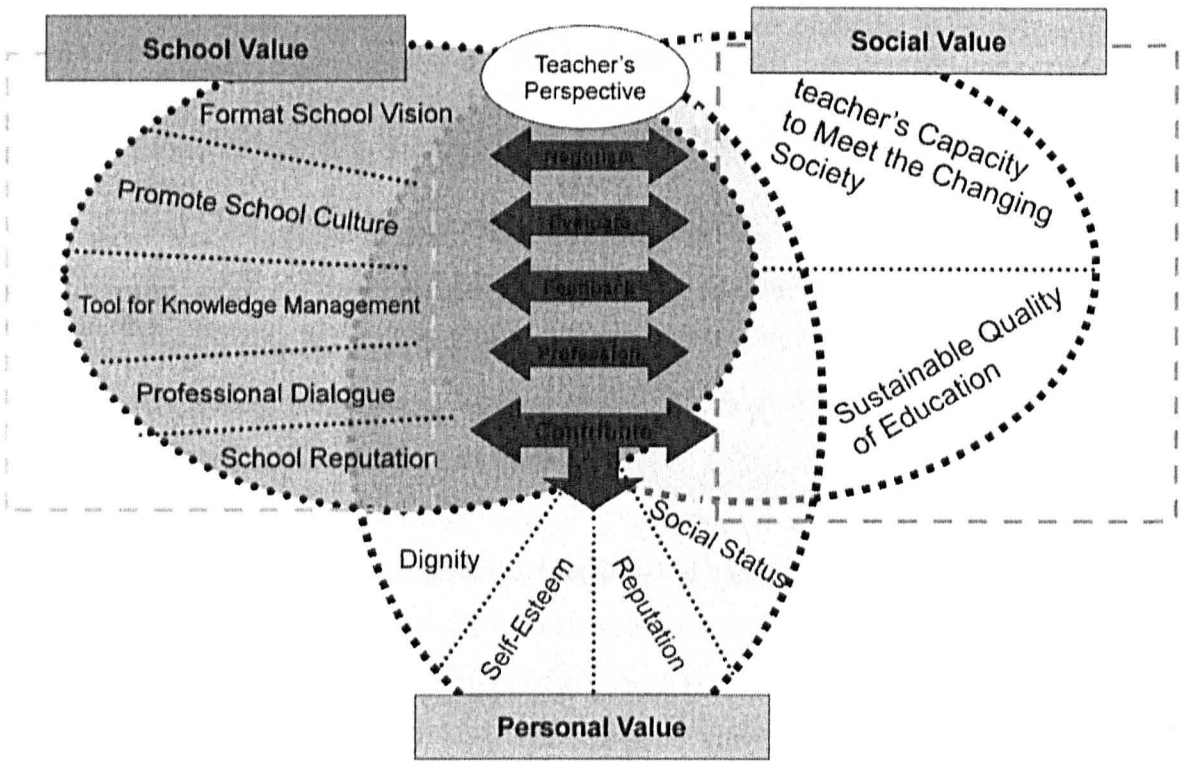

Figure 8-1: Framework of the Values of TE

The social values of TE are divided into "teachers' capacity to meet the changing society" and "the sustainable quality of education". These are gathered from teachers', head

teachers' and officers' viewpoints. The school values of TE can improve "the formation of the school vision", "promotion of school climate and culture", "school reputation", "professional dialogue", and serve as a "tool for knowledge management". The implementation of TE can maintain the quality of teaching and also increase teachers' professional development. This system can help build the values of accountability and professionalism. Through the personal values of TE, teachers' social status can be promoted and their reputation can be enhanced. TE is also able to bring out one's dignity and self-esteem.

The framework shown in Figure 8-1 is designed to examine the values elicited through TE. This diagram can be used to meet various aspects of educational practice. In general, my interviewee's responses, which are mostly positive, help to justify the values of the current implementation of TEPD. The values that were brought out are multi-dimensional, and they include social, school and personal values. In the next chapter, I will continue to discuss the limitations of TEPD and suggest some solutions to remedy its shortcomings, so that a suitable TE model can be proposed for Taiwan.

Chapter 9 The Effectiveness and Obstacles of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development

9.0 Introduction

The values elicited from TE through the implementers' perspectives were discussed in the previous chapter. It was shown that the majority of the Taiwanese people accept TE as a mechanism to control the quality of education in Taiwan. In this chapter, I explore the changes in educational administration paradigms based on interview data and some documentation of the fourth generation evaluation model. The current experiment of TEPD (Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development) is evaluated based on RMTE (Recommended Model of Teacher Evaluation) (see Section 5.6). This review is done by using empirical data (gathered from interviews) and by looking at international research (described in Chapters 5 and 6). The purpose of this chapter is to compare and integrate the trends of international research and the implementers' perspectives of TEPD (in order to systematically portray an appropriate, culturally sensitive model of TE for current Taiwanese society in the next chapter). Finally, some suggestions are provided based on the results of the analysis and the discussion in the previous chapters.

9.1 The Paradigm Shift from Managerialism to Professionalism

Formal teacher evaluation is traditionally the responsibility of principals. Research on teacher evaluation has rarely questioned the automatic purview of administrators in matters of quality control, partly because teachers and teacher unions have rarely been willing to take responsibility for the evaluation of peers, and partly because administrators have been reticent to relinquish a task seen as central to their leadership. This section questions the hierarchical and bureaucratic chain of command in education – in Taiwan. I believe that if TE is based on bureaucratic administration, it will produce a sense of "alienation" among teachers. Teachers might think that the aim of TE is not for them, but for educational administration.

The paradigm behind the Assessment of Teacher Achievement (ATA), which is traditionally the TE in Taiwan, and TEPD, which is currently being trialled, are different. The former is more goal-oriented, focusing on the outcome of teachers' performance. In contrast, TEPD is process-oriented emphasising professionalism in a teacher's career development. In this section I will explore the paradigm shift from managerialism to professionalism. There are some overlaps between the two paradigms, and perhaps there

may even be a subordinate relationship, i.e., professionalism is a part of managerialism from a certain point of view. In order to clarify these paradigms, I adopt a polarised position in my discussion. I also assume that the paradigm shift depends on cultural changes in society as described in Chapters 2 and 6.

Sullivan pointed out "managerialism" that, "all state services do better when reconceived and restructured in terms of the business community's values of efficiency and effectiveness" (1998: 307). Managerialism is the belief that organisations have more similarities than differences, and thus the performance of all organisations can be optimised by the application of generic management skills and theory. Traditionally, the Taiwanese government intended to manage the quality of teachers through assessment (see Section 6.1). Therefore, I shall examine these clauses of the Assessment of Teacher Achievement (ATA) to illustrate how the managerialist paradigm can be seen in this regulation.

In the ATA, teachers' performances are divided into three grades. The teachers' performance bonuses are given based on these three grades. According to Article 4 of the ATA, the so-called "good performances" are partly characterised by obedience, for example, "one's teaching must follow the school's timetable" (Clause 1) and "one should handle the school's administrative affairs conscientiously" (Clause 3). Some stipulations refer to teachers' attitude. For instance, Clause 5 mentions that "one can be a student's example if one has good morals", while Clauses 3 and 6 are about "cordial service" and "attentive service" respectively. The major clauses in this article describe the minimum level of performances (the lowest standard), for example "teaching pupils in the proper way" (Clause 2), "taking 14 or less days of sick leave and leave of absence for personal reasons" (Clause 4), "going to school and leaving school on time" (Clause 7) and "do not hold a criminal record" (Clause 8).

We can distinguish two characteristics from the aforementioned clauses. Firstly, consistent standards of a teacher's performance and dedication are required. In other words, teachers' performances are expected to comply with the government's stipulation, which includes obedience, positive attitude and achieving the minimum requirement. Secondly, all statements of better services are in terms of a society's or stakeholder's values of efficiency and effectiveness, but these do not always benefit the teachers themselves. Innovative teaching and professional autonomy, which may be more useful for teachers, are excluded from the criteria of a good teacher in the ATA. This result is consistent with

Sullivan's definition of the characteristics of managerialism. This managerialism is founded on paternalism. Subordinates obey the request of superior, it is not necessary to question and challenge these demands.

Interviewee TS2T3 talked about his experiences as a fresh graduate, and the ways in which teachers were managed. The director treats new teachers as his/her students, requiring them to follow a certain 'ritual'. TS2T3 said:

> When I graduated from junior teacher college as an initial new teacher, I was required to write weekly teaching journals..., the director of Educational Affairs Division checked our journals and s/he [the director] would sometimes pop into your classroom to observe your teaching. Previously, the director was very authoritative ... Only an advanced teacher could become a director. So they [directors] criticised us, and we had to accept it. The only disadvantage was that it did not allow teachers to express their views after evaluation, and they could only blindly accept the director's guidance... (TS2T3 interview)

TS3H has more experience in teaching; therefore he was able to offer an in-depth description of the relationship:

> There were several good directors; they taught us how to choose suitable teaching methods, such as controlling the classroom, inspecting of the classroom during teaching, explaining difficult terminologies, teaching students how to draw graphs in mathematics and so on. S/he demonstrated teaching so that we could learn, for example, how to draw tables or diagrams in order to answer a particular question. This was formerly known as micro-teaching. In fact, these aspects are rather important for teachers. ... However, the previous instruction only focused on making one's teaching clear and easy to understand, so lively and varied teaching probably did not get noticed. How the learning objectives are achieved must abide with the government's stipulation, not to students' advanced learning or learning ability. (TS3H interview)

The relationship between an expert teacher and a novice teacher, as described by TS2T3, assumes that the expert teacher is more professional, so s/he has the responsibility to coach the new teacher. The latter only accepts the expert teacher's guidance in a rather imbalanced relationship. Such an approach is based on the historical background of paternalism.

Since the *Teachers' Law* was enacted in 1995, the professional autonomy of teachers has become established. Teachers have since received the status of professionals. Article 16th (Chapter IV) of Clause 6 states that, "based on the law and school's regulation, teachers' teaching and guidance to students are entitled to professional autonomy." According to Clause 7, "Teachers have the right to refuse participation in activities unrelated to teaching assigned by the educational administrative offices or schools, unless

these activities are stipulated in the Act." In addition to the clauses above, TOS points out that the government's attitude is to confirm teachers' professionalism.

> Since the *Teachers' Law* was enacted in 1995..., teachers are treated as professionals. This is different from before, when teachers were treated in the same way as civil servants.... Nowadays, they are given a lot of professional autonomy and professional rights by the *Teachers' Law*. (TOS interview)

Beside the official view and related clauses, the indicators of teacher evaluation are indeed discussed and formulated by teachers. The development of TE needs an approach that encourages changes based on dialogue, not just a passive acceptance of advice from experts outside the school without questioning. Therefore, the government provided a revised version of the criteria of TEPD, which includes references to the works of seven scholars and experts. These resources are supported by the official website (http://tepd.nhcue.edu.tw/index.php). In these seven references, one is the theme of a doctoral research (Lu Chui-Ching, 2000). The remaining six projects are respectively commissioned by the MoE (Pan Hui-Ling *et al.*, 2007; Chang De-Rui *et al.*, 1994), the Bureau of Education, Taipei City (Chang De-Rui *et al.*, 2001; Chang De-Rui, 2002), and the National Science project (Chang Xin-Ren *et al.*, 2002; Chang Xin-Ren, *et al.*, 2002).

The Government supports several models for teachers to adopt or revise. There are some overlaps between these models (see Appendix VII). However, teachers are accustomed towards acceptance; greater autonomy might produce some difficulties for them. TS3T1 said:

> Professors coach school teachers to develop TEPD using several models. We can choose the most suitable model for our school. We can also find out what our school needs and how we can interpret this model. In fact, teachers are so busy that we have to constantly interpret, discuss and develop our own [model]. But is it worthwhile? We spend a lot of time to on this. We are already very busy, but we often have to discuss, modify [it]...this increases our burden. (TS3T1 interview)

The issue discussed by TS3T1 is about the workload of teachers. However, educational issues are often interlinked, so they cannot be solved from the consequentialist's view (i.e. to solve a single problem and ignore the overall picture). In other words, once teachers are given more professional autonomy, they need sufficient time for professional dialogue and for preparing the curriculum. The workload of teachers should be examined along with the aforementioned aspects.

However, the paradigm of teacher evaluation is already developing towards professionalism. The paradigm shift from managerialism (accountability) to professionalism is analogous to changes of ideology in history from a paternalistic society to a pluralistic society in Taiwan. Such changes are illustrated in Figure 9-1.

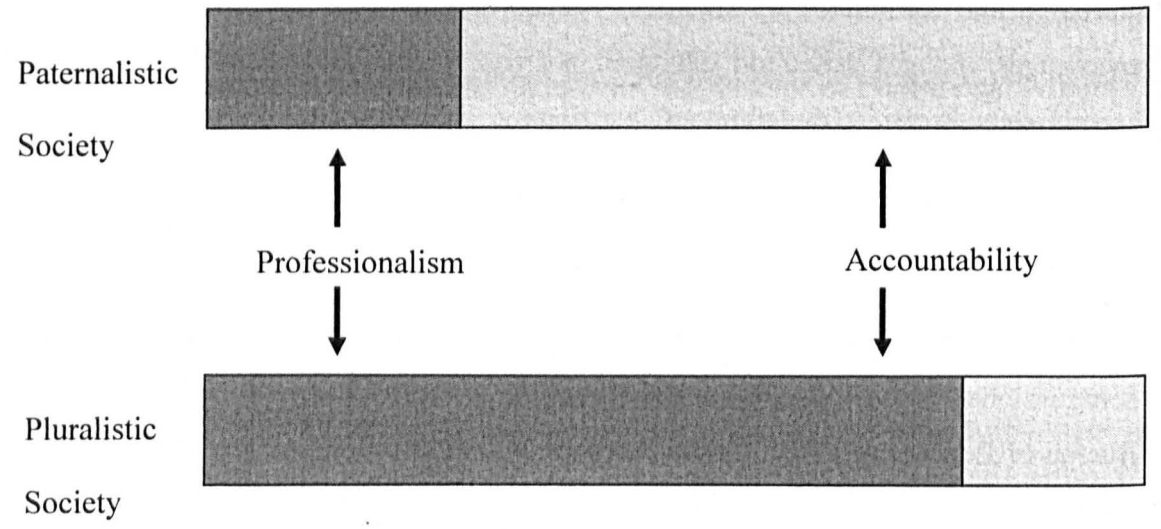

Figure 9-1: The Paradigm Shift of Teacher Evaluation in the Taiwanese Context

The following description provided by TS1H present a snapshot of teachers' attitude towards TE.

> Taiwan is not a totalitarian country. It has taken a long time to change a certain culture. But I think it is a very good point in time; at least no one said we do not need teacher evaluation. We have enough time to 'brew' various support measures and let them mature. At least, we have the same objective...but when TE is carried out, we need to clarify these questions, such as what is evaluation, who is the evaluator, when is the evaluation held, how long it takes, and so on. Once the resources are sufficient I believe that the government can smoothly implement the TE policy. (TS1H interview)

Teachers realise that the changes demand them to enhance their teaching professionalism. They also hope that the government will promote TE in a flexible manner and examine the irrational measures currently in practice. The next section presents a more in-depth analysis of TEPD using the framework of RMTE.

9.2 The Effectiveness of the Implementation of TEPD

Since the paradigm underpinning the current TEPD has been changed to professionalism, the aims of TE should be different from previous ones. In order to justify the effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD, this study declares that the chief objectives of TEPD are 1) to improve teachers' professionalism, and 2) to enhance the quality of teaching. In this section, the effects of TEPD will be examined based on the aforementioned aims.

In TEPD, there are four aims constituted by the Government, and they are: 1) to assist teacher's professional development, 2) to enhance teacher's professional expertise, 3) to improve the quality of teaching, and 4) to facilitate the effect of student's learning. While the results of students' learning might be considered as the ultimate aim of education, I do not think that it is necessarily required in any education plan. In contrast, it is more important that teacher's professional development is consistent with the goal of the school's development.

A comparison of the criteria of RMTE and TEPD is presented in Table 9-1.

Table 9-1: Comparison of TE's Criteria between RMTE and TEPD

RMTE	*TEPD*
Planning and preparation	1) Requirements of the Curriculum Design and Teaching
Classroom environment	*2) Classroom Management and* Counselling
Instruction	3) Research Development and Training
Professional responsibility	*4) Professionalism and Attitude*

In these criteria, TEPD's "requirements for curriculum design and teaching" are equivalent to RMTE's "planning and preparation" and "instruction", whilst the latter's "professional responsibility" roughly corresponds to the former's "research development and training" and "professionalism and attitude". Also, there are more items in TEPD's criteria, and they are discussed in greater detail. Based on the observations above, the criteria of TEPD can be reduced to three domains: "requirements of the curriculum design and teaching", "classroom management and counselling" and "professional responsibility" (the last of which is borrowed from RMTE). In my opinion, "planning and preparation" and "instruction" should be considered as one aspect rather than two separate items. Further, I believe that "research development" is not the main responsibility of primary school teachers, so it is possible to group TEPD's Aspects 3 and 4 under "professional responsibility". Most interviewees have the same thinking. TS1T3 said:

> A university professor teaches 6 to 10 lessons weekly, so he is required to do research. In contrast, a primary school teacher teaches 21 lessons weekly (double that of the professor), in addition to handling class affairs. Therefore, how can you demand a primary school teacher to develop his/her profession through doing research? If a teacher is required to maintain the quality of his/her research, but s/he cannot even achieve the criteria of teaching, such a policy is not reliable. Primary education should focus on the quality of teaching, not on research. (TS1T3 interview)

From the context of the interview above, we should note TS1T3's claim that the criteria of instruction is more important than research, but he did not mean that primary school teachers should give up research altogether. TEPD's evaluation form is more comprehensive than that of RMTE: not only does it contain the multiple Likert scale, it also has a column for qualitative description. In addition, there are different forms: one for self-evaluation, one for peer-evaluation, and a synthesis report form. However, the choice of words for the categories in RMTE is better and more encouraging.

The RMTE emphasises the "process" rather than the "outcome" of an evaluation. In other words, it is never completed per se; when a further need and opportunity arise, the assessment will be continued. Based on this principle, TEPD follows the RMTE model if it does not replace the ATA. TEPD is considered to be 'formative' rather than "summative" by interviewees (including TOT, TOS, TS1H and TS3H). The aim of formative evaluation is to improve, not to prove, which confirms its strengths and improves upon its weaknesses. It is a continuous cycle of finding shortcomings, rectifying weaknesses, and then viewing the improved results and reinforcing them.

Since the evaluator and the evaluatee are colleagues in a partnership, their relationship should be characterised by democracy and integration. TS1T2 explains the importance of the relationship between these two parties. She said:

> In order to encourage teachers who participated in the TEPD, it is better to find partners who are more likely to be trusted at the beginning of implementation. Sometimes, this can be difficult, such as I'm looking for you, but you have to find someone else. Perhaps s/he will find a partner who is not her/his most trusted person... so there is some confusion. If there isn't sufficient rapport between the partners, the effectiveness of evaluation might be reduced. (TS1T2 interview)

TS1T1 described his experience of such a positive relationship:

> He [the evaluator/partner] thought I needed to acquire skills in many dimensions [curriculum design and teaching methods]. That is to say, at least I am gradually progressing. Because I do not have too much teaching experience, there is still a lot of room for development. He is always encouraging. (TS1T1 interview)

According to his experience, TS1T1 claims that it will be more effective if the evaluator is the evaluatee's peer. He said:

> I believe that if colleagues are involved in the evaluation, the pressure exerted is not the same as that exerted by external evaluation. For me, the principal is more like a supervisor or someone of an 'executive' status, a bit like the person who is doing the guiding. I believe that this feeling and the pressure are different from what I mentioned earlier [about having a peer review], because although my colleague, is my teacher, our relationship is more interactive. (TS1T1 interview)

In the TEPD process, evaluators maintain more 'natural' interaction with evaluatees, try to be more objective, and generally exchange more information that is truthful.TS1T1details his experience:

> I am not particularly good in the area of teacher–student interaction. I am too serious in teaching. He [evaluator] reminded me that I should keep smiling and relax. I should interact more with students and give them more feedback. I can also diversify some of my teaching skills. Although one's teaching skill is a tool, not an objective, I believe I can still diversify it a bit more so that my teaching can be livelier ... He [evaluator] coaches me based on his experience, and allows me to try... Maybe I have no idea how to handle them [adopt a suitable teaching method immediately]. I may have these ideas in the past, but I tend to forget easily. This [evaluation] is a very practical part of the educational activities I participate in. It helps me discover my shortcomings, and can directly work towards self-reflection and demand myself to improve. (TS1T1 interview)

The four indicators of RMTE's last aspect are used to examine the effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD. A brief overview of how these standards can be incorporated into TEPD is presented below.

Propriety Standards

Propriety standards require evaluations to be conducted legally, ethically, and with due regard for the welfare of evaluatees and clients of evaluations. Ultimately, teacher evaluation should support the primary principle that schools exist to serve students. Stronge and Tucker (2003; 20) formatted five indicators in propriety standards: 1) written policy inclusive of criteria and procedures, 2) job-related evaluation criteria, 3) prior notification before evaluation begins, 4) legal compatibility with statutory mandates, and 5) equitable treatment of all teachers.

In order to smoothly implement TEPD, the Taiwanese Government created an official website (http://tepd.nhcue.edu.tw/index.php). The contents of this website include "guidance and consultant", "seminars and workshop", "news and event", "status and statistics", "resources", and so on, with such links to support as "Bureau of Education",

"school", "teacher", "central guidance group", "guidance committee" and "service partners". In addition, local governments also have websites similar to the one mentioned above. All the relevant policies and regulations, including criteria and procedures, are presented on these websites.

In the official website, references to the criteria of TEPD are provided. These evaluation criteria (described in the previous section), including "Requirements for Curriculum Design and Teaching", "Classroom Management and Counselling" "Research Development and Training", and "Professionalism and Attitude" are directly related to teachers' daily work.

When I asked my interviewees about the notification of their evaluation results, all the teachers consistently said that they were told that everything must be completed before the end of May because it was an experimental plan. They felt that the process must be clearer when TEPD is formally implemented in future. Such a process should include prior notification, pre-meeting, classroom observation (and interview if necessary), feedback meeting, and submission of report. The process and certain relevant provisions must be specified in the legislation.

In general, peer-evaluation is more readily accepted by teachers. However, when there is a significant gap of teaching experience between peers, the implementation of TEPD should be carefully conducted. TS1T1 and TS1T3 are peers. TS1T1 has just completed his field teaching, so the job is totally new to him. TS1T3, on the other hand, is a senior teacher and has over twenty years of teaching experience. Although TS1T3 is TS1T1's 'coach', giving him a lot of guidance with regard to teaching and classroom management, they are both equal and humbly accept each other's comments in the evaluation process.

In the programme of training for the evaluator, the basic courses are open to all teachers, but the advanced courses are only available for teachers with more than six years of teaching experience (cited from TS2T1's interview). According to the final report of "planning the advanced personnel training course for teachers' professional development evaluation", the qualifications are limited to: 1) teachers who have the certificate of basic training and are given prior approval by their schools, and 2) those who participated in TEPD for two or more years (including self-evaluation and internal evaluation), or have one or more years' experience of participating in TEPD and continue to be involved in the evaluation process.

Occasionally, a teacher's descriptions (for example, TS2T1's descriptions) are inconsistent with the relevant provisions. There are several explanations for these discrepancies: 1) TS2T1 misunderstands the requirements, 2) the local government's requirements differ from that of the central government, or 3) administrators send the wrong message to teachers.

This study does not intend to explore the source of error, although we cannot dismiss the possibility of a teacher's misunderstanding. It can only be said that the discrepancies above demonstrate that teachers are not fully aware of the Government's provisions in TEPD. Apart from the aforementioned point, the other indicators have almost always been fulfilled.

Utility Standards

Utility standards are intended to guide evaluations so that they will be informative, timely, and influential. The collective evaluation of all employees should relate individual performance to the overarching organisational goals. There are three indicators in utility standards: 1) detailed and focused feedback that enhances instruction for children, 2) constructive suggestions that allow sufficient time for improvement, and 3) a process that promotes growth.

With reference to the four criteria of TEPD provided by the MoE, the first two ("Requirements of the Curriculum Design and Teaching" and "Classroom Management and Counselling") are directly related to students' learning. Most items in these criteria are constructed to enhance students' learning, such as "making good use of the assessment feedback" (Chang De-Rui *et al.* 2001; see Appendix VII) "to create a good learning environment" (Chang De-Rui *et al.* 2001 & 2002; see Appendix VII) "mastering teaching objectives" (Chang De-Rui *et al.* 2002; see Appendix VII) "mastering knowledge of the discipline" (Chang Xin-Ren *et al.* 2002; see Appendix VII) and so on. Through these indicators, one's teaching can be improved. In the case of the partnership of interviewees TS1T1 and TS1T3 (for novice teachers), there are many deficiencies in TS1T1's teaching experience but through such a partnership, there is a gradual development in his teaching skills. For an expert teacher like TS1T3, who left the teacher training institution a long time ago, some relatively new teaching methods and innovations are unfamiliar for him/her. S/he can obtain new education knowledge through working with partners. For example, the expert teacher still adopts reinforcement theory of behaviourism to reward students'

learning, while constructivist educational psychology emphasises cultivating intrinsic motivation to learn. The exchange of experience and knowledge as the one described here are common to several other interviewees in my study. Such constructive suggestions will improve mutual professional development.

Feasibility Standards

The feasibility standards state that an evaluation system should be as easy to implement as possible, efficient in the use of time and resources, adequately funded, and viable from a number of other standpoints. An evaluation system that satisfies the Feasibility Standards will be applicable specifically to teachers, and will be sensitive to the practical issues related to evaluation within a school system at the same time. The indicators of feasibility standards include "practical procedures for both teachers and administrators" and "perception of meaningful evaluation as a priority for the school system, with adequate support".

Personnel evaluation procedures are deemed as practical, so that it produces the information needed in efficient, non-disruptive ways. Practical procedures for data collection of both teachers and administrators should be as simple and job-embedded as possible to prevent undue overburdening of either the evaluatee or evaluator. Given the emphasis on keeping records in Taiwan's bureaucratic culture, many reports have to be written for the TEPD; therefore, the teachers' heavy workload is unduly increased. TS1H said:

> TEPD also show similar examples: Teachers need to do a lot of work; they will worry about that... the final report should be submitted at the end of this project. The Academic Director also needs to write several reports on the results of implementation. If we perform well, we will need to present [our reports] in related conferences. Each mentor teacher writes her/his own records of counselling or self-reflection besides keeping an account of her/his teaching journals and so on. (TS1H interview)

TS1H recommended that teachers' professional development in TEPD should be highlighted, and we should internalise values that are important to teachers, rather than paying attention to the writing of reports. If TEPD is regarded as a meaningful activity and given priority in the school system, adequate time and resources ought to be provided so that the evaluation can be effectively implemented, the results can be fully communicated, and the appropriate follow-up activities can be identified. According to the experience of several interviewees, the development of TEPD has been the focus of their respective

schools, and it therefore managed to enhance the school culture. The process of applying for the Government's funding is restricted to the design of the fiscal year (from 1st January to 31st December), thereby causing considerable distress for many school administrators (the academic year is from 1st August to 31st July). In other words, schools that participate in the experiment have to implement TEPD from 1st August, but the funds are allotted several months later. TS2T3, a school director, who is also a business leader, has experienced some pressure resulting from the allocation of funds to support the implementation of TE in his school. This experience will be described in the next section. The school director in charge has to take risks if supplementary funding cannot be allocated in time. Even if an application for the funding is not approved, the director has no choice but to look for ways of funding the evaluation. Such an application process will seriously affect the school's willingness to participate in TEPD. The limitation of funding for implementation of TEPD will be explored in-depth in the next section.

Accuracy Standards

Accuracy Standards state that information must be technically accurate and that conclusions must be linked logically to the data. In this dimension, there are three indicators, including "written documentation of all communications regarding performance", "recommendations based on patterns of behaviour", and "substantiation for personnel recommendation that are made".

In order to avoid uncertainty in the communication process, all communications, such as feedback and suggestions, are mainly based on written record. These forms, including the self-assessment form, teaching observation forms and integrated views form, are designed based on discussions made at school meetings. The filling out of these forms must be based on the actual situation of teachers' teaching. TS1T1 described his experience:

> I recorded his [TS1T3] teaching using an observation form. I found that several students were reticent in his class. I wrote these down on the form... Of course, some aspects are more difficult to understand from the professional viewpoint. They belong to the model of interaction between teachers and students, and only the teacher himself/herself understands the actual situation. (TS1T1 interview)

Regarding TS1T1's recommendation, the evaluate TS1T3's response is as follows:

> He [TS1T1] mentioned that when I interacted with a group of students, some other students were lying on their table. Students did not put their hands up, and seemed to be indifferent. I did not deal with those students. Later on, we

> discussed this issue. In fact, I did not deal with them ... because I was adopting the teaching method of cooperative learning groups. To obtain more points, some groups will ask several students not to raise their hands (some groups will be like this, although it is unfair to generalise), but allow the better students to put their hands up to rob scores. How do we deal with this situation? I would randomly pick a few students. In fact, this randomness is characterised by certain 'targets'. ... Another lesson is a practical assignment, which I will go around the class doing an inspection and assisting students if they need help. If he was observing this [practical] lesson, he will find that I have done what he claimed I didn't do. Anyway, he has written it up and indeed, I hadn't done so in the observed situation. I have to remind myself not to pay attention to this remark about ignoring certain students... because only we ourselves know if we really ignore students in our lesson. Regarding this matter, I accepted his [TS1TS1's] record, but this is probably because I've been observed too many times. (TS1T3 interview)

From TS1T3's response, we can observe the obstacles faced by teachers with different levels of teaching experience. Firstly, when experienced teachers receive criticism from novice teachers, it may result in the former feeling uncomfortable, but the criticism and guidance provided are still accepted. In other words, the relationship between the two teachers is more or less on equal terms. Secondly, the content of discussion is directly related to teaching, and will therefore enhance the teaching professional development, and thirdly, the recommendations are substantiated.

To eradicate problems such as the one described above, RMTE's suggestions of "differentiated systems" can be employed. Regarding the principles of "negotiation", "self-reflection" and "continuity", most TEPD's measures are consistent with the principles of RMTE. Furthermore, the flexibility of these principles is maintained. Paradoxically, RMTE's proposal of using multiple data might not work as well in the Taiwanese context as it will increase teachers' workload. Hence, TE in Taiwan primarily employs classroom observation; portfolios are supportively used.

Regarding the process of RMTE, TEPD was examined by these eight steps:

The steps of 1) determining the purposes and meaning of teacher evaluation through discussion at school meetings, and 2) discussing relevant research to decide on an adequate evaluation model, including suitable procedures and standards, which can be demonstrated in Section 7.3.2 (MoE's strategies 4 and 5). The use of a bottom—up development demanded that the administrative process be passed in school meetings, with the formatting of key issues based on all the goals of TE.

The process of observation, feedback meetings and the relationship of peer groups can be shown from my previous data. Such a process can be referred to as RMTE's systematic classroom observation (Aspect 3), face-to-face feedback (Aspect 4) and the establishment of a peer group to develop evaluation (Aspect 5). However, in the Taiwanese context, because of teachers' heavy workload, the systematic classroom observation can be divided into a simplified systematic classroom observation and a yearly formal classroom observation.

The collected data for TE in Taiwan focus on formal classroom observation, and are supported by teachers' teaching portfolios. Although RMTE suggests the use of multiple data, including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement, it is adequate to adopt simple principles in the current implementation of TE to avoid increasing teachers' workload.

The mentor teacher system was designed to assist new teachers and inadequate teachers (this refers to RMTE's recommended in Aspect 2, Step 7) to set up a system for improving the abilities of inadequate teachers.

In Table 9-1, "professionalism and attitude" and "research development and training" are included in the criteria of TEPD. As pointed out earlier, I recommend the combination of professional responsibility with the aforementioned criteria. RMTE's Step 8 from Aspect 2 encourages professional development using the results of teacher evaluation. Such an approach makes teachers' professional development more satisfactory. In other words, the results of an effective TE can highlight a teacher's strengths and weaknesses, and based on this, an efficient professional development can be achieved.

My previous discussion illustrates that application for funding is a real problem in the implementation of TEPD. However, the TEPD implemented by the MoE is mostly done according to RMTE, based on the ideal evaluation model. Therefore, utilising RMTE to examine TEPD, the effectiveness of TEPD is demonstrated. Hence, it is not surprising that the interview data gathered for my study shows that this experiment was successful in certain aspects, particularly in terms of mutual knowledge exchange, the advantages of peer evaluation, improvement of school culture and the constructiveness of written feedback. Many problems and complications arose during the implementation of TEPD, which can be investigated through interviews and discussed in the next section.

9.3 The Obstacles Faced in the Implementation of TEPD

In order to assist teachers in their professional development and enhance their teaching quality, the MoE began implementing the TEPD plan in 2006. Many teachers still doubt its value and have misgivings about its content, planning strategies, objectives and implementation modalities. As a result, teachers are discouraged from participating in the evaluation. From my interviewees' perspectives, there are several obstacles in the implementation of TEPD. Such views differ from official perspectives, as I shall demonstrate in this section.

The obstacles of TEPD are illustrated as follows:

Deficiencies in the Administrative System

The deficiencies in the administrative system include "the lack of legislation", "failure to integrate related resources and programmes" and "the lack of support and funds for the school's administrative system".

<u>The Lack of Legislation</u>

The relevant legal provisions of TEPD have yet to be passed by the legislature, so there is no legislation at present. Teachers are therefore not bound by law to participate in the evaluation procedure. While the Government informed civil servants that all administration should be based on the law, they must first take the lead. Generally, teachers look forward to the enactment of TE before its implementation. TS2T3 and TS3H appeal to the Government for legislation. They said:

> The Government should move towards regulating TE. It is important to have legislation. They [the Government] have left everything to schools. What should principals and administrators do? They have no power to execute this experiment. TEPD should be legalised so that schools can implement it. The Government has to deal with it [legislation], not appropriate any funding – I'm not clear what this means.... every country has implemented TE except Taiwan .... (TS2T3 interview)
>
> ... The best way is to systematise, legalise, and professionalise. Our country should work towards developing systematisation, legalisation and professionalism. (TS3H interview)

If the Government is unable to complete the legislation and continues to insist on implementing TEPD, administrative staff would be aggrieved to implement it. TS2T2 said:

> We do not have the regulation asking all teachers to accept it [TE], so we need to implement it through this way [coax teachers to participate in TE]. (TS2T2 interview)

Failure to Integrate Related Resources and Programmes

Apart from the implementation of TEPD by MoE, several counties and cities have launched TE earlier than MoE's programmes. However, these counties' and cities' systems were not integrated into the original plan of the MoE. The MoE has failed to properly use resources of educational administration and "the counselling groups for primary education" (國民教育輔導團, a group of teachers coaching less experienced ones how to teach in primary schools in a certain county or city directly under the county's Bureau of Education) to engage teachers in the related work of TEPD. This results in a waste of resources, and even causes teachers to resist TEPD. Based on her years of administrative experience, TS3T1 felt that educational activities generally lacked integration. She pointed out that:

> They [the Government] hope to achieve things through such a way [integration]; we also suggested that all related projects should be integrated, but the circumstances remain unchanged. For instance, there are inspections of health education, physical education and health evaluation, inspection of the teaching of dialects and the English language and so on...We prepare for these annual evaluations. Can you imagine how busy we are? These are regular activities, not unexpected, one-off events. We try our best ... there is only so much one can do. (TS3T1 interview)
>
> The implementation of evaluation currently includes school evaluation as well as physical and health assessments, all of which are executed by the Bureau of Education. (TS3T1 interview)

In addition to the weak (vertical) integration of administrative resources in place, the (horizontal) administrative units in charge are also not well integrated, resulting in a hydra-headed phenomenon. TOS stated that the authorities and responsibilities of the different MoE units in the implementation of TEPD are unknown.

> There are several units of the MoE which are responsible for TEPD. The Educational Research Committee of MoE is initially responsible for constituting the experimental plan of TEPD and for amending the *Teachers' Law* ... Part of the experimental work related to primary and secondary schools belongs to the Department of Elementary Education, MoE. Experimental work related to vocational and senior high schools are dealt with by the Central Region Office, MoE. .... The next step is to enact the policy. It is unclear which department should be responsible for this. Should it be the Department of Elementary Education, the Central Region Office, or the Educational Research Committee? These affairs include meta-evaluation... What is the next step? When should the review be done? When will the report be received? And when is the discussion held? We do not have an answer to any of these questions yet. (TOS interview)

In the related training of TEPD, there has also been a lack of integration in theory and implementation; at times, it was even mutual contradiction. During the in-service training of TEPD, although teachers are encouraged to discuss a set of school-based indicators for evaluation, there are other problems, for instance, disagreements between professors. TS3T1T highlighted several conflicting tendencies:

> Professor A disagrees with the idea of Professor B. This team does not agree with the research and development of that team. While a local government introduces a model, the MoE or other organisations are launching another model. The problem is we do not have so much time to choose a TE model. (TS3T1 interview)

Some professors' unspoken issues should not be raised during in-service training sessions as they might have an influence on teachers' overall perception of TEPD, and might even present difficulties in school-based discussions.

Lack of Support and Funds for the School's Administrative System

Because of the lack of experience in executing TEPD, there is often a lack of integration between a school's units. It is difficult to offer relevant support for teachers participating in the TEPD. In addition, the funding is also insufficient; schools are frequently unable to support teachers to attend in-service courses and classes about teaching equipment. TS2T3 was the person in charge of such a project. He often had problems getting funding for TEPD.

> We coaxed teachers to participate in this experimental plan. To execute it for a full year, I need to pay them in advance. So the director's daily workload is full even if the head teacher does not ask for extra projects; in fact, any additional programme could make my life miserable. Regarding the money, financial efficiency has been really poor this year. It has been said that the local government's colour [the party] is not the same as that of the Central Government. In previous instances, Taipei City Government deliberately delayed the allocation of funds, almost until the end of the academic year. When we reported this to the officer of Taipei City Government, he said he was helpless. He was under pressure from schools: they kept reminding him to allocate the funds. He said that the MoE has not been given any funding, but one [the school] still needs to introduce the experimental plan. The Bureau of Education's concerns are the plan and its execution. The funds may be allocated in the final month of the plan. If the funds are not completely used, it will be returned to the government. Our school is an example: the use of our funds did not go as planned; the financial management was poor. (TS2T3 interview)

Formatting financial budget is not a part of a teacher's profession as he/she might not have such a capability. While such a "budget" can be one of the indicators of a plan's efficiency, it raises some issues for the school.

> We do not have an idea about how to budget in the first year. So some schools allocated the fees supplied to the "budget" account. But this part of budget has completely been removed. Consequently, we had to observe our peers' (teachers) teaching during our free time (i.e. voluntarily). Regarding workshops, we organised a series of lectures; they cost 1,200 NTD per hour, and each lecture was three hours in length. A professor's fee for supervising students is 2,000 NTD per session, and there is an additional "delayed meal fee". If a whole day of in-service training is held during the summer vacation, we will have fees for meals. So there is perhaps a small amount of money left for stationery (e.g. paper), and probably none left for overtime work and other expenses. Fortunately, we have learnt to be more pragmatic in recent years. We may apply for about 70,000 NTD for an academic year. However, there was an outrageous incident: I made an application last year, but the Bureau of Education spent a long time reviewing our plan. The process works like this: if our plan is adopted, it will be sent to the MoE. After MoE's review, the funding will be allocated to us. But the approved funds will first be given to the municipal government, who is responsible for distributing them to the school. We started implementing TEPD in September and completed it at the end of June in the following year. As a director, I had to pay the money in advance [before the funds were allocated]. The Government told us that our plan had been adopted, but the money had not been allocated. We implemented TEPD in trepidation, because I didn't know how much money we would be given. As the project leader, not only did I spend a lot of energy on it, but I had to contribute the money in advance. If the Government did not allocate sufficient funds, was there anything I could do? (TS2T3 interview)

TS1H describes the difficulties of formatting the budget:

> The new [revised?] plan is actually dependent on last year's plan, i.e. we are talking about the gap between these plans and their growth rate. Because of the limited funds, it is not just about how you apply for funding. There are many considerations, including, say, the rate of agreement in school conference and so forth...I hope to keep this project, even if there is no funding, because it is good for us, not for MoE. If this project can be continued, it benefits both my students and I. (TS1H interview)

During the interview, TS2T3 said that he is no longer willing to be in charge of this project or to work under external pressures, particularly with regard to shouldering budget risks. One of the interviewees, who is a head teacher (TS1H), returned to be a homeroom teacher (i.e. downgrading him/herself) in a primary school in the summer of 2009. All these cases demonstrate that the implementers of TEPD must face many pressures.

Teachers' Heavy Workload

In addition to the intense pressure of administrative work and heavy workload, participation in the TEPD plan has given teachers an extra burden.

Time Management in Coordination with TEPD

According to the standard requirements, a teacher who is not an administrator or a homeroom teacher should teach at least 22 lessons per week (one lesson lasts for 40 minutes). Hence, teachers are often busy preparing to teach and providing class services. Although they are willing to enhance their professional development, it is difficult for them to find time. TS2T3 expresses this difficulty:

> I have to prepare for the lessons and check my students' assignments. If the head teacher has strict demands, I will apply for leave. Teachers have the right to apply for leave and sick leave. Some lectures are not interesting, so teachers are not willing to attend them. So it is the director who brought disgrace to the school and wasted money. Several teachers are aware of the exorbitant fees of these lectures. (TS2T3 interview)

The question of time cannot as yet be resolved, but teachers will eventually find a solution. As the Chinese saying goes, "the superior one has a policy, and the subordinates have measures to counter these." (上有政策，下有對策) When the superior Executive establishes certain policies, the subordinates will find some ways to cope, not only to complete the task, but also by ensuring that they do not let themselves become too tired.

Preparation for evaluation is very time consuming. Teachers participate in TEPD not only as evaluatees, but also as evaluators. They need to prepare some written material, and these results in physical and mental exhaustion. TS3T1 said:

> We are too busy, so we are doubtful whether it [the written material for TEPD] can be done very practically and solidly. Or rather, I should say that each person's time is limited. For instance, the time allocated to the preparation of lessons may originally be substantial, but when one needs to engage in professional dialogue and discussions, do some paper work, attend training sessions and so on, one will not have much time. These things are time-consuming... (TS3T1 interview)

As a head teacher, TS1H observes and confirms that teachers' workload is extremely heavy. He offers an in-depth description of the various responsibilities of primary school teachers. He said:

> Teachers have so many things to do. Each division gives them [teachers] many affairs and tasks. They are *supermen*: they could be a committee's convenor for the school's curriculum development, or they are in charge of coaching students for language competitions. While teachers' abilities and talents are affirmed by the school..., I do hope that these teachers have enough energy and are happy to do these things... but sometimes I feel that they are given too many tasks... the tasks are really overwhelming. (TS1H interview)

TS3T's views are very similar to the aforementioned description. The preparation work for TEPD includes "discussion of indicators", "discussion, formulation and the completion of self-assessment forms, observation forms, and comprehensive forms", "the scheduling of classroom observation", "records of teaching observation", "feedback meetings observation" and others. It also includes the relevant in-service trainings. These add to the workload of teachers and administrative staff. In other words, apart from their daily teaching, there is an increasing amount of additional work for schools and teachers participating in the experiment.

Teachers who attend an intensive in-service training will need to rearrange lessons or make up for the missing lessons. Once again, this provides an extra workload for teachers; hence, it is not surprising that teachers are not willing to accept and participate in the evaluation. My friend who teaches in a primary school had to attend TEPD training for three days in October 2009. The director asked her to redistribute all her lessons on those days. The reason was that the director could not find a substitute teacher. She had to teach 12 lessons during the TEPD training week, so her school asked her to make up for the lessons she missed in the subsequent week. This meant that she had to give 34 lessons (22 and the missing 12) in the following week. There are many similar cases in primary schools. Such inconvenience will inevitably reduce teachers' interest and involvement in TEPD.

Teachers' Attitude:

Teachers are the 'principal characters' of TEPD; therefore, their attitude holds the key to the entire project's success. In general, there are two difficulties in implementing TEPD, including "the reluctance of teachers to accept changes" and "insufficient knowledge of the TE policy".

<u>The Reluctance of Teachers to Accept Changes:</u>

Teachers' professionalism has traditionally been regarded as secure and steady, and their position was never challenged (see Chapter 2). According to my personal experience and observation, most teachers have sets of their own teaching and curriculum plans, and revise them yearly. Hence, they are used to stable lives and are less concerned about the changes exerted by the external environment. Their indifferent attitude towards professional growth dims their interest in pursuing higher education and their aspiration to improve their teaching. TS1T2 laments:

> ... No matter how much I have done, or how hard I work, the results are the same. There are cases in which hard-working teachers are ostracised. Some teachers may think that you should not dash through your work and try to be the first to complete everything. Hence, all teachers experience tremendous pressure. (TS1T2 interview)

As a result, head teachers cannot reward teachers in school; otherwise s/he will become a target of public criticism. Most head teachers have the same experience, including all my participants. Even in the experimental school, there may be groups aiming to achieve professional growth, but they end up pursuing such a development in the wrong way.

> I noticed that all of a sudden, there was a group on the 'other side' of school: they went for coffee during the 'professional growth' session, walked around in a park, and even had a lunch party! They often chatted during meetings. There was no 'growth' [or development] in this kind of activity, so the director told the team leader that his group was engaging in unsuitable activity... (TS2T2 interview)

Such peer pressure comes from the reluctance of teachers to accept changes. This is very typical of negative school culture. Not only has this type of culture harmed teachers' professional development, it also does significant damage to the quality of education.

Insufficient knowledge of the TE policy:

Some teachers do not have a good understanding or knowledge of TE. They believe that the evaluation procedure is for assessing teachers' performances and for increasing their workload, thereby giving them more problems. Teachers are fearful of evaluation and try their best to avoid participation in TE. This collective 'dodging' attitude in turn builds up the stress that was already present in the profession.

From another perspective, evaluation could easily be regarded as a superior tool for domination. Even the Government emphasises that teacher evaluation does not underpin the teacher grading system. While the interviewee TOS also stresses this view repeatedly, many teachers remain doubtful of the true intentions of TE.

The Need to Strengthen Inadequate Evaluators and Professional Evaluation

Inadequate Training for Evaluators:

Most senior teachers did not participate in the trial of TEPD. Teachers who completed the "basic level of training" but have less than five years of teaching experience cannot act as evaluators. As a result, the number of educators was insufficient. TS1H described the initial situation of the implementation. He said:

> When the project began recruiting participants, most teachers were still passive about it [TEPD]. Actually, we were hoping that everyone could participate in the TEPD and gradually implement it. However, if one is not willing to do so, that does not affect our friendship. We are still good friends. (TS1H interview)

TS2T1 stated that although her teaching experience is minimal, she was very willing to participate in all the training. However, because of the conditions regarding one's teaching experience, she was unable to attend advanced training. Such regulations inhibit teachers who are willing to work towards professional development; therefore, they must be amended.

It is not necessarily true that teachers who have a lot of teaching experience and have undergone some training can properly implement TEPD. Some evaluation skills need to be sufficiently practised. TS1T2 observes that:

> Before the implementation of evaluation, we do not have enough in-service training. Some of these capabilities have to be learnt through a period of time as we couldn't always grasp every accurate skill quickly. To evaluate professional content in 40 minutes [a class], we couldn't evaluate all the items in each dimension. The sensitivity must be sufficient, and note-taking must be done very fast. (TS1T2 interview)

Evaluator's Professionalism Needs to be Strengthened:

Teachers who are "deficiently trained", "have insufficient evaluation knowledge and ability" and "cannot fully understand the content and model of operation of TEPD" cannot properly implement TE. This leads to many teachers' lack of trust towards the system.

TS2T1 describes that in her classroom observation, she will take into account her relationship with the teacher(s) she is evaluating:

> It [evaluation] will be a burden. If I want to write down the evaluatee's shortcomings, I can't bear to do so. If your [evaluator] observation is just one-sided [evaluatee's teaching], you will start to think that all her/his teaching is like that [the lesson you observed]? Narrative description is rather one-sided. If the previous observation is good but the last description is less so, people will have a very deep impression of the latter. (TS2T1 interview)

Orientation towards personal relationships can be easily found in CHC (described in Chapter 2). Maintaining a good relationship with one's peer group results in collectivism. In the case of TS2T1, CHC could damage the evaluator's professionalism. In contrast, TS2T1 cannot trust the administrators' professionalism in evaluation. She said:

> Who is the evaluator qualified to assess? Is the head teacher definitely qualified? The head teacher is not necessarily better than me in terms of teaching. Why does he/she have the right to evaluate me? (TS2T1 interview)

The educational administrators' teaching professionalism has been challenged for a long time. Teachers generally agree that these administrators have been out of the teaching profession for too long, so they might be unfamiliar with professionalism in teaching. Given this atmosphere, it is difficult for teachers to accept that educational administrators can properly execute the work of TE. TOS sees TE as a risk for these administrators. He believes that if they can seize this opportunity to improve themselves, TE is able to enhance their professional image.

> We should guide these educational administrators (including head teachers and directors) towards the proper perspectives for evaluation. The improvement of this professional knowledge will certainly go through a warm-up phase. TEPD is deemed as such a phase. (TOS interview)

Another controversial topic is about whether the evaluators' professionalism needs to be considered when they are assessing teachers who are teaching subjects that are different from theirs. TS1T2 expresses her doubt:

> In our school, which is a big school, there are seventy to eighty classes. Not all evaluators are experts. For example, I have been teaching the higher grades for a long time, but can I be very precise if I evaluate the Natural Sciences teachers' teaching? There are certain problems in these specialised subjects. I doubt whether one's professionalism or the evaluation committee can cover all the subjects. I believe that teachers who teach the lower grades have certain areas of expertise, but it is not easy to find out. Therefore, I do not trust the evaluation committee. (TS1T2 interview)

From the interviews above, I gathered that the implementers felt that the government should provide sufficient or comprehensive support and training for evaluators. To minimise the discontent of teachers participating in the evaluation, it is important to ensure that evaluators meet certain professional standards established by the government.

Lack of a Mechanism for Professional Dialogue

Teachers and administrators are always busy. It is difficult to arrange a common time for discussion; hence, it is difficult to design the proper mechanism for professional dialogue in schools. The MoE is looking forward to the full implementation of TEPD in the future. This problem can, of course, be resolved by then, but teachers consider that as a very difficult goal to reach.

Currently there are 35 lessons per week in the fifth and sixth grades at primary school level. The homeroom teacher has 22 lessons per week. For a primary school teacher, for example, the remaining number of lessons every week is 13. S/he needs to deal with student affairs, mark students' homework, and prepare for his/her lessons. Hence, the

remaining time for groups to discuss the issue of professional development is extremely limited. A more appropriate time is on Wednesday afternoons, the time for teachers' in-service training. But there are other difficulties. TS1T2 said:

> The time for our in-service training is limited. The training time includes meetings of divisions and subject area meetings, so there isn't much time left for professional dialogue. (TS1T2 interview)

All this points to the problem of arranging a common time for discussion among teachers.

An exchange programme with other participating schools or with scholars and experts is insufficient because of limited time; it could not effectively assist teachers in the sphere of professional development. TS1H mentions that:

> It is very difficult to carry out professional dialogue because teachers have too many meetings, including counselling meetings, grade meetings, and subject meetings. Our meetings are not only arranged for Wednesday afternoons [the time for teacher in-service training], but also for another time. If we participate in two systems [TEPD and the teacher mentoring system] simultaneously, we will have more meetings to discuss relevant affairs. The Educational Affairs Division has to arrange the school timetables very carefully. A group of teachers needs to have a common course arrangement to be able to proceed with professional dialogue. This professional dialogue cannot be held after school. After school, teachers need to check on students, mark assignments and design curriculum. The time for dialogue is actually rather limited. (TS1H interview)

Limited time influences the arrangement of professional dialogues. And the insufficient professional dialogue affects the quality of teachers' professional development. Therefore, this issue must be carefully reviewed.

The Incoherence of Educational Policy

Since 1949, many education policies in Taiwan have not been implemented coherently. This is partly because of the country's cultural complexity (see Chapter 2). While Taiwanese education is following international trends of educational research, especially reforms in the U.S., on the other hand, one should not neglect the local culture and the history of educational policy. TS2T3 has a very profound understanding of this matter:

> I have been teaching for more than thirty years, and I was an administrator for 15 years. I have participated in various pilot programmes, most of which were inefficient towards the end, and might even disappear at that point; hence, participants often felt that they were cheated. I follow his [head teacher] demands for a long time. When the experiment was completed, the head teacher moved to another school. We [all teachers] follow those projects, including "mastery of learning", "creative thinking", "teaching in small classes", and "Grades 1-9

> Curriculum" and so on. No one talks about the "Grade 1-9 Curriculum" any more, as the MoE has changed it to "Enhancement of teaching ability in classrooms". So we had to undertake the in-service training again. In such instances, a feeling of resistance is inevitable. (TS2T3 interview)

If a policy has not been thoroughly implemented, the Government's credibility will be affected. The incoherence of educational policy is a good example of this.

9.4 Summary

This chapter demonstrates the paradigm shift of educational administration from managerialism to professionalism. On this basis, the focus of the purpose of TE is on "improvement" rather than "accountability". The implementation of TEPD is broadly consistent with the 4GE model and "the Application of Personnel Evaluation Standards for Teacher Evaluation". From the discussion in Section 9.2.1, the utilisation of "the 4GE model" and application of meta-evaluation model of "the Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards for Teacher Evaluation" to view the implementation of TEPD in Taiwan, the effectiveness of the project was demonstrated. However, based on the data gathered from interviews with implementers, there seem to be some limitations and obstacles.

This study elicits some obstacles in the implementation of TEPD from my interview data, including 1) deficiencies in the administrative system: lack of legislation, support and funds, and failure to integrate related resources and programmes, 2) teachers' heavy workload: time management in coordination with TEPD, 3) teachers' attitude: the reluctance of teachers to accept changes and insufficient knowledge of the TE policy, 4) the need to strengthen inadequate evaluators and professional evaluation: inadequate training for evaluators and evaluator's professionalism needs to be strengthened, 5) lack of a mechanism for professional dialogue, and 6) the incoherence of educational policy.

Generally, my study shows that most teachers agree with the measures in TEPD implemented by the MoE, although some supplementary measures need to be established in a more sophisticated manner. In the next chapter, I propose a TEPD model and suggestions to overcome these obstacles, which are based on integration of the implementers' perspectives of TEPD and the trend of international research in this chapter.

Chapter 10 Suggestions for Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development in Taiwan

10.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to offer suggestions for TEPD in Taiwan. All discussions in this chapter were elicited from earlier investigations, including documentary analysis and empirical interview data. Recommendations from these discussions can contribute towards the formatting of an effective TEPD policy, before the government begins to design the regulation.

This chapter is divided into four sections. First, the debate between education policy and education research, which was raised in the implementation of TEPD, is discussed, especially localised international research. The recommendations also include the reformation of education formalism, which will be discussed in Section 10.2. Suggestions for a TEPD model in Taiwan, based on my previous discussion, are presented in Section 10.3. Recommendation of supplementary measures to improve TEPD based on the exploration of Section 9.3 will be illustrated in Section 10.4.

10.1 Education Policy versus Education Research

A dispute surrounding the relationship between "education policy" and "education research" was raised in the implementation of TEPD. The dispute consists of three main questions: 1) is the education research localised? 2) How properly is the education research localised? 3) Is the formulation of the education policy based on properly-localised research?

Most of my interviewees stated the implementation of the TEPD experiment widely utilises the studies of three researchers: Chang De-Rui, Chang Xin-Ren, and Pan Hui-Ling. According to interviewee TS3H, Chang De-Rui's "Developmental Guidance for Teaching" is a longitudinal study of more than 10 years. His research is regarded as the most thorough localisation of education research. All of the research mentioned above and the seven recommended models provided by the MoE make references to the teacher evaluation models of the U.S. Patterns of the latter, which are based on scientific education research, illustrate a holistic process and present detailed explanations/clarifications.

However, there appears to be an issue: no matter how carefully thought out these studies are, they are still educational research that is based on and reflects the American

culture. If Taiwanese educational research were to be Americanised as such, and if Taiwan continues to use an Americanised meta-evaluation mechanism to review TEPD, its local cultural voice will be lost. Although I mentioned the hybrid nature of Taiwanese culture in Chapter 2, it should be noted that it is formed through history, via a long process of integration and evolution.

When the indicators of "the Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards for Teacher Evaluation" are further examined, it is found that these indicators are produced from the administrators' views. For example, "written policy, inclusive of criteria and procedures" is expressed as a kind of sympathy of superiors towards their subordinates. However, subordinates would prefer that such a written policy be passed to the "teacher in front" (teachers' busy school life leads to passive learning of new knowledge in Taiwan). This shows a typical difference between the "top–down" and "bottom–up" models. The model of the "Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards for Teacher Evaluation" is examined through the effectiveness of the MoE's implementation, although this was not the intention of the original research.

Further, it is found that the design and content of TEPD are adequate and satisfactory. Difficulties appeared only in the supplementary or peripheral measures, such as the process of application (especially the flaws of timing and finance), legislation, as well as the design and arrangement of relevant in-service training. These supplementary measures are directly related to the teachers themselves, including their feelings about evaluation.

10.2 Education Reform: The Shift from Formalism

From the discussion in the previous section, "top–down" and "bottom–up" approaches play a key role when we view the effectiveness of TEPD. The Taiwanese Government tried to take a "bottom–up" approach, but in reality, the "top–down" approach is still used. The American educational research appears to have a strong influence on Taiwan's education policy. In other words, there is a lack of localisation. Localisation ensures that international research is used only for the purpose of reflecting upon the culture of one's country or a particular location, in contrast to the complete import and adoption of foreign models to the subject of study. Localisation involves a high degree of contextualisation, not so much the use of focus groups and questionnaires to evaluate pre-existing foreign research models. For example, a variety of studies commissioned by the Ministry of Education

(MoE) have helped to promote the effectiveness of TEPD's implementation (cited from http://tepd.moe.gov.tw/index.php). These studies include:

- Pan, Hui-Ling *et al.*: "Research of the Professional Standards of Secondary School Teachers" (completed at the end of 2007; commissioned by the Committee of Educational Research, MoE)
- Tseng, Hsieng-Cheng *et al.*: "Guidance for Teacher Professional Development" (completed at the end of 2006: commissioned by the Committee of Educational Research, MoE)
- Huang, Nai-Ying *et al.*: "Professional Standards for Teachers" (completed at the end of 2006: commissioned by the Department of Secondary Education, MoE)
- Yang, Si-Wei *et al.*: "Planning Study of the System and Framework of Teachers' Education" (completed at the end of 2006: commissioned by the Department of Secondary Education, MoE)
- Chen, Mu-Jin *et al.*: "Methods, Courses and Principles of Teacher Professional Development" (completed at the end of 2007; commissioned by the Department of Secondary Education, MoE)

The commissioned studies mentioned above were mainly aimed at setting professional standards. The objects of these studies are teachers who teach in primary and secondary schools, high schools, vocational schools and so on. However, the results of the research above are rarely cited in other reports, in the sectors of education, research, and extended research. The function of these studies is to prove that the Government has done related research to improve the TEPD programme. However, the cultural effects behind the implications of various indicators of these criteria are neglected.

Such measures or products, which rigorously follow a system of previously defined and known rules is called 'formalism'. Formalism is fulfilled in the bureaucratic system of educational administration in Taiwan, and the studies above are a good example. There are many links in the relationship between education policy and educational research in Taiwan, but there is a lack of localised educational research. In actual fact, the degree of localisation of educational research deeply influences the effectiveness of the education policy.

I recommend the use of interviews to gain an in-depth understanding of the stakeholders' perspectives on related issues. This should be complemented by questionnaire surveys, i.e. the collection of a larger amount of data. In particular, the education policy ought to highlight the significance of Taiwan's native culture besides demonstrating the way in which such a policy interacts with Taiwanese culture in general.

10.3 Suggestions for a TEPD Model in Taiwan

The recommendations in this section are aimed at the education policy of TEPD rather than the experimental education projects of TEPD.

Teachers' are usually concerned about whether the evaluators carrying out TEPD are professional, or whether the evaluation system is too strict. Teachers' views regarding the TEPD reflect a certain degree of polarisation. While they find that the current peer teacher review system, with its observation and discussion format, is acceptable, they believe that once the TEPD becomes a formal educational policy, professional evaluators will be employed, and a set of stringent standards will be applied to the evaluation model. The paradox lying within the polarised results arise from the uncertainty of TEPD's position, i.e. whether it is going to replace the ATA (Assessment of Teacher Achievement).

According to my discussion in the previous section, there is a shift of paradigm from managerialism to professionalism. My TEPD model (Figure 10-1) is based on the data collected from interviews and the relevant literature in the educational field. In general, the lacunae and obstacles mentioned in Section 9.3.2 can serve as a basis for the improvement of TEPD. It should be noted that TEPD cannot replace ATA and is not linked to the "teacher grading system" (considering teachers' work overload). Discussion of the model is presented after the diagram.

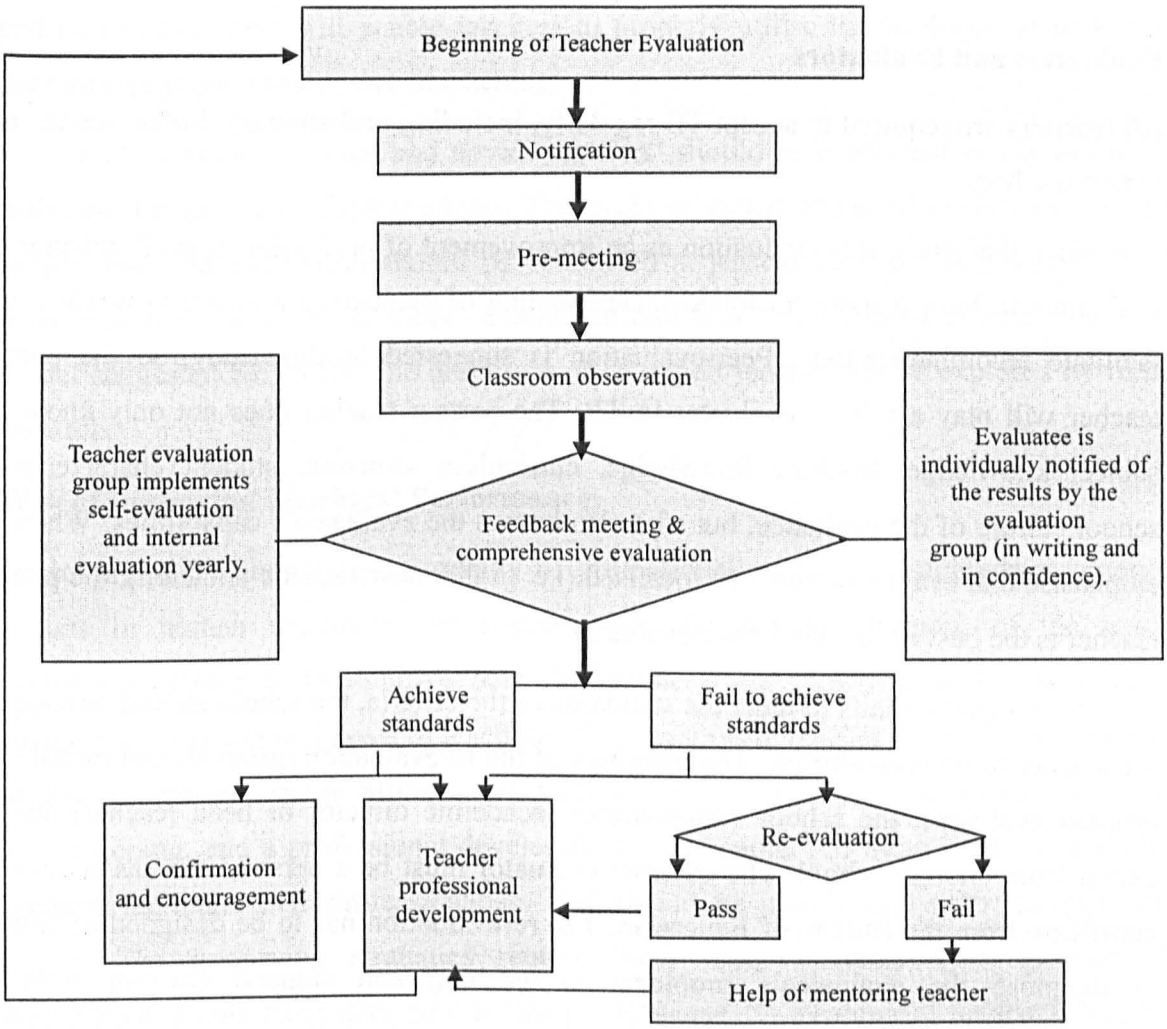

Figure 10-1: Suggested TEPD Model

Establishment of Procedures

Evaluation procedures should be straightforward and should identify the people who will be evaluated, by whom, how often, and by what means. The procedures should provide credible and useful information to the teachers on their practice if evaluation is to improve teaching and educational quality.

Figure 10-1 summarises the major components of most evaluation procedures, which includes pre-meeting, self-evaluation, review of portfolios, classroom observation, post-meeting (feedback meeting) and summary of the evaluation report. The teacher's professional development portfolio must be consistent with the school's curriculum development and school development.

Evaluatees and Evaluators

All teachers are required to accept TE regularly, including probationary, initial, novice and expert teachers.

Since this study sees evaluation as an improvement of professionalism, it is better for evaluators to have a more profound understanding of evaluatees in order to produce and facilitate recommendations. Peer-evaluation is suggested in this study, so the partner teacher will play a role of evaluator in TE. The partner teacher does not only know the subject knowledge, teaching knowledge, curriculum structure, student characteristics, school culture of the evaluatee, but s/he also knows the evaluatee's capabilities. When we emphasise that evaluation must be localised (i.e. in the most realistic situation), the partner teacher is the best candidate for the evaluatee.

Once a teacher fails to meet the standards of the criteria, the school should arrange for the teacher to be re-evaluated. The members of the re-evaluation group should include the original evaluatee, the school administrator (academic director or head teacher) and an expert from another school. The external evaluator must be a person who has acquired a certificate from the Bureau of Education. The re-evaluation has to be designed accurately to diagnose the evaluatee's problems in teaching and suggest relevant ways of improvement.

The head teacher should take the responsibility for the final report in the comprehensive evaluation to express the schools' accountability.

Frequency and Time of Evaluation

Evaluation procedures should provide an approximate timeline and the steps to be taken. Teachers can expect the written evaluation procedures to guide them through the process, at least for most of it. Teacher evaluation procedures also need to accommodate the wide spectrum of teachers' abilities, from expert teachers who seek professional stimulation in their job to the struggling novice teachers who require coaching. However, once an observation has been conducted, it is common courtesy to schedule a feedback session or conference as soon as possible, preferably within five days. (Stronge and Tucker, 2003: 71)

The first day of school is generally at the end of August, which is the busiest time in Taiwan. Considering that the aim of teacher evaluation is to improve teachers' teaching, it should be completed as soon as possible. This study suggests the flexibility of timing to complete the process of TE, including the observation and feedback meeting, before the

end of October. This will enable teachers to properly utilise the feedback to understand their strengths and weaknesses in teaching.

The evaluation of initial and novice teachers' should be conducted yearly in order to maintain the quality of their teaching. The cycle of expert teachers' evaluation could be longer, but their evaluation should be conducted at least once every four years. This is consistent with the cycle of school evaluation and four categories of criteria (the TEPD model suggested by MoE). The definition of an expert teacher can be explored by further research.

Way of Improving Teachers' Performance

Improving and maintaining the quality of professional service may include a variety of actions in human resources and support. The fundamental purpose of the teacher evaluation process is to improve both the teacher's and school's performance and to advance the mission and goals of a school. The "mentoring teacher system" was suggested by the government, while Stronge and Tucker (2003: 74) propose induction, mentoring, peer coaching, and a professional development programme. All these improvements help teachers facilitate their professionalism and should be coordinated with the evaluation efforts. The improving strategies require three basic features: 1) a structure for systematically collecting data on relevant performance; 2) meaningful feedback based on observation and documentation; and 3) the development of goals based on students' learning outcome. However, mentoring is the best strategy because it is the most economical (no increase in budget) and the most localised (the mentoring teacher is selected from the local area).

The mentoring teacher, who assists teachers to achieve the standard, can be selected from excellent retired teachers or members of the "counselling groups for primary education". TS1H and TS3H suggested that the mentoring teacher system starts when a teacher fails in re-evaluation, and it will end when a teacher passes the re-evaluation.

Teachers' views are generally consistent with the international trend (as I have pointed out in my previous discussion, Chapter 7 and Section 8.2). Discrepancies are often a result of cultural differences. For example, the evaluator is a peer teacher rather than a line-manager (as in the English system) or the head teacher (as in the system in the U.S.), because peer teachers can have a better understanding of one another and can give suitable

recommendations. The aim of TE is to focus on "improvement" rather than "accountability".

10.4 Recommendation of Supplementary Measures to Improve TEPD

My empirical data and collected documentation in the previous chapter show the various obstacles that occurred during the implementation of TEPD. These obstacles affect the effectiveness of the implementation of TEPD. Hence, it is apt for me to propose several measures to counter these obstacles. They are detailed below:

1. The Establishment of Legislation and the Integration of all the Resources

At present, there is no legislation for the implementation of TEPD. The provision of TEPD should follow the process of legalisation. The establishment of such a law can be used as a basis for the official launching of the TEPD system. Therefore, the Teachers Law need to be amended to make room for the inclusion of the TE system. There needs to be an integration of the existing evaluation system and the utilisation of available resources in schools. The combination of these resources and the TEPD plan can avoid the wastage of resources, besides reducing teachers' workload. Meanwhile, the TE system can use educational administrative units' resources, such as "the counselling groups for primary education". It includes all the subjects of the expert teachers, so that an evaluation guidance mechanism can be established to design a more efficient TEPD plan. Related resources and evaluation systems should be integrated.

2. Schools Should Provide Sufficient Assistance to Teachers and Reduce Teachers' Workload

In the implementation of teacher evaluation, schools should actively seek relevant funding, support teachers' requirements, including human resources and material resources. In addition, schools can establish a satisfactory evaluation system through "supporting measures" and "fostering evaluators programme" to improve TEPD's supporting systems. The operation of TEPD can create a favourable atmosphere and environment, and can encourage more teachers to participate.

To augment teachers' willingness to participate in TEPD, all members of the school should engage in a discussion. The reduction of teaching hours for participants can help to reduce the burden of their work. This facilitates evaluation and enables the process to move forward.

3. Teachers Should Have a Positive Attitude towards TEPD

Under such circumstances as 1) the increasing problem of "low birth--rate", 2) the imbalance of "the supply–demand structure for", and 3) the "surplus of teachers", it is inevitable that some issues will attract more attention and expectations than others. Among a few of the issues are 1) the efficiency of public school education, 2) the teaching quality, 3) students' rights to education, 4) teachers' professionalism and so on. Therefore, TE will become an unavoidable issue for discussion. TEPD aims to enhance teachers' professional development and the teaching quality, but does not deal with inadequate teachers. To face pluralistic values and rapid changes, teachers ought to be more open-minded and foster a positive attitude to accept TEPD.

Teachers can utilise the resources of TEPD, including 1) scholars' and experts' guidance and counselling, 2) knowledge management and 3) strategic alliances and other mechanisms to elaborate their professional knowledge and abilities, such as teaching materials and methods, curriculum design, classroom management, counselling, research and development and in-service training to enhance their professionalism.

4. The Promotion of Related Activities to Build Teachers' Confidence towards TEPD

The MoE, Bureau of Education and schools can strengthen communication and advocacy through a variety of related in-service training activities, including instructions, orientation, and advocacy presentation. These activities will help teachers understand the ideas, practices, connotations and implementing methods of TEPD.

To emphasise the purposes and functions of TEPD is to assist the professional development of teachers. Explanations of this sort can reduce teachers' anxiety towards TEPD, act as a tool for assisting with inadequate teachers, and might help to build mutual trust between colleagues. However, this does not include the implementation of the "Teacher Performance Assessment" and the "Teacher Grading System".

5. Strengthening the Dialogue Mechanism and Establishing the Resource Network

During the implementation of TEPD, the teamwork between teachers can be strengthened, particularly through sharing and dialogue. This culture can contribute towards changing the existing mode of thought, besides providing performance feedback for teachers. Such contributions stimulate more reflection and growth, and will effectively enhance teachers' competence. Schools that participated in the experiment can actively encourage teachers to

develop their professionalism by helping to organise a series of in-service training courses (such as improving professional knowledge and ability), or inter-school activities.

Through sharing and integrating the resource network, teachers can exchange their experiences during the "implementation of TEPD" and "peer dialogue", and obtain a better understanding of the actual practices and the obstacles faced. These measures can reduce teachers' uneasiness about TEPD and contribute to greater communication and rapport, thereby assisting them in overcoming various problems.

6. Other Supporting Measures

The Government should devise a set of qualitative and quantitative criteria for TEPD. The specific criteria of TE ought to be able to accurately diagnose teachers' teaching behaviour and provide a framework for improvement in teaching. In order to achieve a true, fair and objective interpretation of the results of evaluation, the aforementioned criteria should be, formulated through a sufficient amount of quantitative data, supplemented by qualitative description, so that the prospective evaluation is unbiased and practical.

The qualifications of counsellors can be relaxed; teachers with below five years of teaching experience, and those who participate in the basic-level training course and have a good performance, should be offered the opportunity to be selected as evaluation counsellors. In this way, more teachers are willing to be involved in the TE system.

10.5 Summary

There are numerous studies about TEPD. Some studies explore various models of different states in America. Some studies localise these models by using questionnaire surveys. Only a few studies were properly localised, such as Chang De-rui's research (as claimed by the interviewee TS3H).

Formalism was still easily found in Taiwanese education when I embarked on my study. For example, some studies were commissioned by the MoE to promote the effectiveness of TEPD's implementation. Once these studies were completed, the Government thought that it marked the end of their responsibility. However, these studies were rarely quoted in other reports; in other words, the function of these studies did not achieve MoE's expected target. This is a typical example of formalism.

A TEPD model was proposed in my study (see Figure 10-1). I suggested the establishment of a set of standardised procedures for schools. Peer-evaluation was

recommended to facilitate teachers' professionalism. My study also suggested the flexibility of timing to complete the process of TE, but before the end of October. It will enable evaluatees to strengthen their ability based on the feedback given to them. The "mentor teacher system" can assist teachers when they need help in improving their professionalism.

In the final part of this chapter, I recommended several supplementary measures to improve TEPD: 1) the establishment of legislation and the integration of all the available resources, 2) schools should provide sufficient assistance to teachers and reduce teachers' workload, 3) teachers should have a positive attitude towards TE, 4) the promotion of related activities to build teachers' confidence towards TEPD, and 5) strengthening the dialogue mechanism and establishing the resource network.

The next chapter concludes and sums up the objectives, contributions, strengths and limitations of my study.

Chapter 11 Conclusion

11.0 Introduction

This final chapter pulls together and summarises the theoretical conclusions and policy implications stemming from discussion of the findings in Chapter 4 to 8. The first section shows how these conclusions have addressed the research objectives set out in the first chapter. The objectives are used as sub-headings to organise the section. The second section demonstrates the contributions of this project towards the TE policy in Taiwan, while the third reflects on the strengths and limitations of the work (including the methods used and the researcher's role). The fourth section suggests directions for future research on TE in Taiwan, drawing upon the insights gained through the study of England's Teacher Performance Management system (equivalent to my description of TE). In the light of the Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development (TEPD) model laid out in Chapter 8, final concluding remarks are made.

11.1 Summary of Conclusions

This study used the interview method (with 13 interviewees) and the analysis of such documents as news reports, MoE meeting records and National Teachers' Association (NTA) minutes to investigate a national concept: the implementation of TEPD for primary education in Taiwan. It would be useful to replicate these objectives and conclusions to reflect upon the trajectory of my research.

In this section, I reflected upon the research objectives and questions that I laid out in Chapter 1 and came up with four main conclusions. These conclusions are described below, after Table 11-1.

Table 11-1: Conclusion of Research Questions and Objectives.

Question	*Objective*	*Conclusion*
Question 1: What is the trend of TE in the international context? *Question 2: To what extent does the international development of TE significantly influence the TE model in Taiwan?*	*Objective 1: To review the international literature relating to the strengths and limitations of teacher evaluation models.*	*Conclusion 1*
Question 3: How has TE been developed in the English context?	*Objective 2: To draw upon the English experience of implementing teacher evaluation.*	*Conclusion 2*
Question 4: What is the nature and effectiveness of existing evaluation systems and those that are being trialled in Taiwan's primary schools? *Question 5: What are the implementers' perspectives of the potential advantages and limitations of the evaluation of teacher professional development?* *Question 6: What factors are likely to facilitate or hinder the implementation of statutory performance evaluation programmes at the primary school level in Taiwan, in the light of the English experience and the implementers' viewpoints?*	*Objective 3: To carry out a detailed critical analysis of the development of the TE policy in Taiwan.* *Objective 4: To undertake empirical studies in Taiwan to elicit implementers' perspectives of the strengths and limitations of the trial/experimental models.*	*Conclusion 3*
Question 7: What implications do the findings of this study have for issues of TE?	*Objective 5: To explore the implications of TE in Taiwan.* *Objective 6: To see the ways in which my personal experience and knowledge as a teacher can be applied to the research.*	*Conclusion 4*

Conclusion 1:

This study explored and reviewed literature on TE to understand the trends of contemporary educational research on the various purposes, meanings, connotations and models of TE. Although there are numerous TE models, they can be synthesised into six aspects:

1. The purpose of TE should focus on teacher professional development, and should be consistent with the goal of a school's development.
2. There are eight recommended steps to establish TE in school: 1) determine the purposes and meaning of teacher evaluation through discussion at school meetings, 2) discuss relevant research to decide on an adequate evaluation model, including

suitable procedures and standards, 3) systematic classroom observation, 4) face-to-face feedback, 5) establish a peer group to develop evaluation, 6) use multiple data, including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement, 7) set up a system for improving the abilities of inadequate teachers, and 8) encourage professional development using the results of teacher evaluation.

3. Danielson's TE model is most widely accepted in practice. It includes four domains: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibility (see Table 5-5).

4. The evaluation form can be designed as the multiple Likert scale, using gentle words such as 1) unsatisfactory, 2) target for growth, 3) proficiency, or 4) area of strength, in order to allow educators to easily make choices.

5. Four strategies for constructing evaluation systems: 1) differentiated systems, 2) self-reflective, 3) negotiations, and 4) multiple data (including classroom observation, portfolios, interviews and students' achievement).

6. The four indicators of the *Application of the Personnel Evaluation Standards to Teacher Evaluation* provide a tool of meta-evaluation, i.e. propriety, utility, feasibility, and accuracy, which can be used to test the effectiveness implementation of TEPD.

All these six aspects, named Recommended Models of Teacher Evaluation (RMTE), were employed as a basis for comparison to examine the effectiveness of the current implementation of TEPD.

Conclusion 2:

Chapter 5 showed how the development of TE in England has developed differently from other contexts presented by other international research: the latter explores theoretical rather than practical issues, whilst the policy in England has been evolving based on the discussion and revision of the effectiveness of implementation. Localised researches on TE started in 1980, creating a political issue that drew the public's attention and concern. Through the cycle of Legislation→Implementation→Amendment→Re-legislation, Teacher Performance Management (TPM) received full implementation in England. The alternative mode suggested by the National Union of Teachers is flexibly acceptable by all English teachers. The practical implementation of TPM in England is a result of its closeness to the educational scene and the decentralisation of power in schools. "Fewer

theories", "less administrative pressure", "more effective implementation" and "more sources of law provision" are valuable lessons that Taiwan can learn from England.

England has also been experiencing an excessive reliance on American Studies while developing the process of teacher evaluation (see the description in Section 6.1.1). One example is the report of "Those Having Torches" (Suffolk LEA, 1985). But the English government immediately realised the importance of local culture, so it stressed the design of education policies based on local education research in the subsequent process of developing TE. From this point of view, the successful experience in England can prove to be an inspiration for Taiwan, particularly in terms of the localisation in education research and its links to policy-making.

Conclusion 3:

In Chapter 6, the implementation of TE was subjected to a chronological investigation. In Taiwan, teachers were previously seen as civil servants. On 13th November 1992, the Judicial Yuan (No. 308) explained that teachers are not civil servants; therefore they should have a separate assessment regulation.

Several studies found some questions relating to the current "assessment of teacher achievement". These studies considered the trends of TE research to be influenced by "teaching knowledge theory", "teacher's efficiency theory", "teacher's quality theory", "teacher empowerment", "professional development theory", and "accountability". However, the current system of achievement assessment seems unable to promote teachers' professional development to improve students' learning.

Since the traditional and current assessments cannot accurately reflect teachers' performance and enhance professional development, the MoE decided to introduce the TEPD experiments.

Utilising the Recommended Model for Teacher Evaluation (RMTE) to examine the current TEPD implemented by Taiwan's MoE, this study finds that most measures are inconsistent with the trends of international research, except the difficulty of applying for funding. In addition, my interview data also showed that supplementary measures were insufficient. Some obstacles include 1) deficiencies in the administrative system, 2) teachers' heavy workload, 3) teachers' attitude, 4) the need to strengthen inadequate evaluators and professional evaluation, 5) lack of a mechanism for professional dialogue, and 6) the incoherence of educational policy.

The aforementioned findings gave me the impetus to suggest a possible TEPD model in Chapter 8, and to propose strategies for overcoming these obstacles, including 1) the establishment of legislation and the integration of all the resources, 2) schools' provision of sufficient assistance for teachers and the reduction of their workload, 3) teachers should have a positive attitude towards TE, 4) the promotion of related activities to build teachers' confidence towards TEPD, and 5) the strengthening of the dialogue mechanism and the establishment of a resource network.

Conclusion 4:

The implications of TE were divided into social, school and personal (teachers') values, based on the interview data in Chapter 7. Social values refer to the substantial maintenance of high quality education by such social mechanisms as TE. School values include " the formation of a school vision", "promotion of school climate and culture", "school's reputation", "professional dialogue", and "tools of knowledge management". Schools generally conduct a series of meetings to discuss and construct the annual curriculum plans for school. The TE system assists teachers' professional development to focus on these plans, so that teachers and school develop in a mutually supportive way.

The TE system can help produce the values of accountability and professionalism. Generally, a teacher's social status is promoted and his/her reputation is enhanced through the social values of TE. TE is also able to bring out a teacher's dignity and self-esteem.

It is worth noting that my teaching and personal experiences have been interspersed in various chapters to support the value of TE.

11.2 Contributions

In the course of conducting a dialogue between implementers of TEPD and the Taiwanese context, I have suggested some implications for the policy. The bulk of these served as the principal focus of this study. This study is likely to be of interest not only to Taiwanese teachers, but to policy-makers interested in improving schools and promoting teachers' quality. This is because my research raises issues of how *the TE policy can be effectively constituted from the implementers' perspectives.* In addition to presenting a historical perspective of the "assessment of teacher achievement", the complexity of the current implementation of TEPD was also investigated.

Further, this study also recommends *'less centralisation and more localisation'*, which is drawn from English educational policies. They include understandings of shared responsibility for schools implementing TPM to make teachers' professional development coherent with a school's goal(s).

Also, based on Taiwan's *Teachers' Law* in 1995, it is imperative to legislate TE. However, for the past 15 years, the NTA has been undergoing a long-term struggle with the Government, resulting in the ineffective formulation of a TE policy. As my interviewees TS1H and TS3H asserted, *the present moment is the best time to formulate the legislation.* Not only does the majority of the teachers realise that TE is an important mechanism to enhance their professionalism in teaching, but the TEPD experiment is also developing towards a mature stage. In this study, related measures are proposed to improve the integrity of the TE policy.

11.3 The Strengths and Limitations of the Study

All research must involve compromise to a certain degree. Constraints of time, money and expertise ensure that a balance has to be struck between investigating as many available cases as possible on the one hand, and selecting representatives of such a population on the other. Debates about objectivity continue, particularly with regard to the competing merits of large-scale, quantitative investigation using a scientifically-determined sample against small-scale, qualitative research which provides "thick description" (Geertz, 1973), or what Stenhouse refers to as "critical intersubjectivity". In order to design and operate any research study, choices have to be made, and an important part of one's research process is to consider what impact such choices have on the outcome of a study.

This study is designed to augment data from 13 interviews, with findings from larger-scale, related research, and reflections upon various levels of information of the TEPD policy. This has created what I have referred to as the "complexities" of data collection from the macro-policy level to the individual teacher's experience.

I would argue that this study has five major strengths. The first is its internal validity, which is created through the constructivism-oriented multi-method research. It involved the detailed and ongoing examination of the effectiveness of TEPD's implementation. By interviewing implementers of the TE policy, "thick descriptions" could be elicited. Copious data portray how teachers' attitude and perceptions of TE illustrate the deeply embedded cultural preconceptions found in Taiwanese society. These teachers' voices

from the educational field will therefore be reflected in the TE policy, so it is hoped that this policy will be implemented more effectively and more meaningfully.

The second major strength of this study is the attempt to link the implementation of TEPD with its historical development. Understanding how the educational policy evolved can give us a better insight into the needs and significance of each era. From the time spectrum of the dynamic development, we can estimate the trend of evolution in the larger environment. Therefore, the policy of TE can foster a great future in Taiwan.

The third strength of the study is in the use of related research findings to increase the legitimacy of my arguments. In this way, findings from several dissertations that explored teachers' attitude towards TEPD in certain areas were expanded and justified by means of preliminary survey.

The fourth strength of the study is related to the way in which it brought forth the non-rational (i.e. emotional) side of teachers. The obstacles faced in implementing the TE policy come mainly from teachers' reservations. The results of questionnaire surveys often reflect their rational responses, because they believe that "such surveys are merely perfunctory". In my study, however, I managed to establish rapport and trust with these interviewees. They felt that their statement will contribute to the formulation of the TE policy, and this will in turn be beneficial for them in terms of personal and career development. I believe that the interviews generated genuine responses, and the respondents were even able to make a clear distinction between "personal views" and non-personal ones.

The final strength of this research is its direct and ongoing engagement with users, which enables the dissemination of its findings to both key informants at national and local levels, and to head teachers and teachers in schools that participated in my study.

Having pointed out the strengths of my work, the limitations of the study must also be acknowledged. The first of these relates to the scale of the research. Only two schools (and an additional school as pilot study) in Taipei participated directly in this study. Although, I have considered issues of gender, social position, teaching experience and teaching subject, the small sample did not enable the exploration of the differences between individual views. This also meant that the participating schools, while chosen to be broadly representative of the national experience, could not be identified as such statistically because they are located in one specific area in Taiwan. In the summer of 2009, I had the

opportunity to discuss related TE issues with four primary school teachers (two couples): one couple lives in central Taiwan, and the other lives in the southern part of the country. Their responses were highly consistent with those in my study. Although their answers can by no means represent the voices of all the teachers in Taiwan, it does point towards the possibility that teachers' attitude towards TE is not affected by regional differences. This can perhaps demonstrate the dependability of this study, which corresponds to Shenton's (2004) description that "if the work were repeated, the same context, which the same methods...similar results would be obtained" (P. 71).

Three generations of my family have been engaging in educational work, and I have more than 20 years of teaching experience in a primary school. At the same time, I have two school-going children; primary school affairs are therefore very familiar to me. The traditional Confucianism and paternalism dominate my main thought. Hence, I frequently found myself being influenced by a "taken-for-granted culture" (described in Section 1.6.2; Pouliot, 2007: 370). I believe this is one of the methodological limits of/challenges for the study. In asking teachers to explain their images of a foreign TE system, it is necessary for them to precisely consider what is meant by the term 'taken-for-granted'. Teachers might think that TE in the U.K. and the U.S. are effective, and consider that such systems should serve as a basis for Taiwan. This produced some very interesting discussions about the disparities between "what the system really is" and "what it ought to be". When the Taiwanese Government borrows a good American or British policy, i.e. one that benefits teachers, it is common for teachers to agree that great lessons can be learnt from it. However, if it is the reverse, they will accuse the Government of merely imitating foreign policy and losing its own standpoint/voice. However, considering the limited space and time, I am unable to discuss it in detail in this study.

Since the findings of this study (which mainly consist of qualitative descriptions) are specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals, it must be careful to demonstrate the extent to which the findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations and populations. Some caution must, therefore, be employed in any attempt to generalise my findings. Noting this point, it is nevertheless important to recognise the potential power of small-scale studies to inform and contextualise results from larger quantitative surveys. Practitioners may be able to relate their own findings to this study, but only if they believe that the situations faced are similar to those described here.

11.4 Directions for Future Research

The findings of this study have raised questions which could be expanded and explored in further studies. One issue relates to the "assessment of teacher achievement", of which some shortcomings can be discerned and does not appear to fully serve its purpose of professional development and improving students' learning. In Section 7.1, I suggested that the current "assessment of teacher achievement" lacks the influence of the teaching knowledge theory, teacher's efficiency theory, teacher's quality theory, teacher empowerment, professional development theory and accountability. The present method of achievement assessment seems unable to promote teacher professional development in order to improve the effectiveness of student's learning. More recently, sociological perspectives on professionalism have rejected such normative notions of what it means to be a professional. (Whitty, 2006: 3) However, a number of clauses refer to ethics and normative notions as assessment standards. Since the assessment of teacher achievement is not replaced by TEPD (as shown through my interview data and recommendations) and the assessment of teacher achievement will continue to be implemented, it is necessary to ensure that its development is consistent with both the international trend as well as the local demands.

The second set of questions relates to the role of the "taken-for granted culture", and I have briefly alluded to this in Section 9.3. Traditionally, respect for teachers has been taken for granted, and we uphold this without questioning (as described in Chapter 2). However, since the lifting of the Martial Law, the Taiwanese society has been and is sensitively reviewing a number of "taken-for granted cultures" There continue to be numerous preconceptions that exist in our educational environment, for example, teachers believe that, "Western education systems are better than ours". These axiomatic truths hinder teachers' professional development. Therefore, there are some "taken-for granted cultures" that ought to be identified, reconsidered and reconceptualised to adapt to the current social context. The final set of questions relates to the issue of methodology. Immanuel Kant (1724 – 1804) said, "Thoughts without contents are empty, intuitions without concepts are blind." I shall modify this sentence as: "The use of international research without localisation is empty, but localised research without internationalisation is blind." Taiwanese educational research often relies too heavily on international research, especially American studies, so the spirit of localisation is somewhat lost. Therefore, a significant gap exists when one attempts to integrate the two spheres (i.e. localisation and

internationalisation). In my research journey, I discovered that not only is formalism prevalent in educational administration, but it is also easily seen in educational research. For instance, when a community demands for a system of TE, it often reviews numerous foreign studies, for example, TE in the U. S. Based on the introduction of different systems, questionnaires are used to investigate teachers' views, and such is the definition of localisation. In most studies of TE, indicators provided by the MoE (except Professor Chang De-Rui's work, which demonstrates more than ten years of localised research) were mostly in response to the policy made by the survey research. The 13 interviewees in my study are confined to the Taipei area, but can serve to broadly produce a "thick description". Therefore, this study suggests an extended interview sampling in the whole country. Moreover, in order to streamline and refine TE, this study proposes taking a step forward to develop different subjects and various grades of indicators of TE to establish a useful indicator database.

11.5 Concluding Remarks

Teachers' professional development has gradually become a major concern of Taiwan's national education reform: many policies and measures are now formulated through experimentation, practice and exploration by a group of people, described in Section 7.3. Among them, teacher evaluation is seen as a feasible way of enhancing professional development, besides serving as an important mechanism for improving students' learning.

I argued in the introduction that researchers need to look beyond the problems and listen critically to teachers as thinking, feeling beings. In other words, they should believe in the goodness of human nature. Within the covers of this thesis, I believe this has been achieved. However, according to the epistemology laid out in Chapter 3, the discussion and conclusions reached are not the final word, but a small contribution to an ongoing pool of research in an ever-changing educational landscape. Nevertheless, it is hoped that this study will make constructive contributions towards further academic debate, and will result in a further 'symbiotic' dialogue between policy-makers and teachers, so that the educational quality of schools and teachers can be simultaneously improved.

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Appendices

Appendix I : Semi-Structured Interview for Head Teachers

The semi-structured interview for head teachers is composed of five sections related to TEPD. The structure of the questions and main points are as follows:

Background of TEPD

Aim: To explore the theoretical foundations, the nature, the national expectation, the cultural background, the core concepts, the teaching efficiency and its characteristics. How does TEPD promote teacher professional development?

The implementation of TEPD in school

Aim: To understand the process of TEPD and how it promotes teachers' professional development. How does TEPD help teachers who have difficulties in teaching? How does TE change the culture and atmosphere of primary schools? What is the relationship between one's school and Bureau of Education?

Perspective of TEPD

Aim: To analyse head teachers' perspectives and their feelings on experience of evaluator, the value of TEPD, school teachers' willingness to be evaluated, and views of evaluation (as a threat/benefit).

Head teachers' perceptions of advantages and disadvantages of TEPD

Aim: Why is it worthwhile carrying out TEPD? Is TEPD a threat or benefit to teachers? Are there any positive or negative influences on teacher? What are the opinions of the teacher grading system or assessment of teacher achievement system (ATA) related to the result of TEPD?

The feedback and evaluation of TEPD in the head teacher's perspective

Aim: To understand the supporting strategies of TEPD from the head teachers' perspective, the appropriate evaluation and suitable inspectors, the relationship between teacher grading system or ATA payment system and the result of TEPD,

Appendix Ⅱ: Semi-Structured Interview for Teachers

The semi-structured interview for teachers is composed of five main sections related to TEPD, in addition to a differentiated question. The structure of questions and main points are as follows:

About personal viewpoints and understanding of TEPD

Aim: To explore teachers' personal viewpoints and understanding of TEPD, such as how to carry out TEPD, how to prepare for TEPD, their personal viewpoints about the relationship between TEPD and salary.

Differentiated question

Aim: To differentiate between experienced teachers and teachers without the experience of TEPD. If a teacher has experienced TEPD, s/he will need to answer questions in Phase 3, otherwise they have to answer Phase 4 questions.

Experience of TEPD

.Aim: To explore their experiences in detail and how TEPD is practically implemented in schools, for example, the time of receiving notice of the evaluation, the role of evaluators, preparation for TEPD, the forms of evaluation.

Perspectives on TEPD

Aim: To analyse teacher's perspectives and feelings on their experiences as evaluator or evaluatee, the value of TEPD, willingness to appraise, and views of evaluation as a threat/benefit.

Influences of TEPD

Aim: To investigate the positive influence and negative influence, in each teacher's perspective, of TEPD, the improvement in teaching quality as a long term or temporary effect, and whether TEPD changes school culture or atmosphere.

Feedback and evaluation of TEPD from the teacher's perspective.

Aim: To understand the supporting strategies of TEPD from the teacher's perspective, appropriate evaluation and suitable inspectors, the relationship between assessment of teacher achievement or teacher grading system and the results of TEPD

Appendix Ⅲ: Semi-Structured Interview for Officers

The semi-structured interview for officers is composed of three sections related to TEPD. The structure of questions and main points are as follows:

The intention of the government towards TEPD

Aim: To explore the national expectation, the theoretical foundations, nature, core concepts, teaching efficiency and its characteristics, and the processes of TEPD, and how TEPD promotes teacher professional development.

The challenges

Resistance from teachers. Rethink the integration of evaluation for teaching staff and associate (support) staff, timing of review and planning meetings. The system will have to be suitably flexible to accommodate mid-cycle changes (promotion, staff leaving and staff joining).

The links between TGS (teacher grading system) and TEPD

The implementation of TEPD plays the role of TGS. Strategies are encouraged to set a developing objective of professional practice.

The relationship between TEPD and teachers. Personal feelings about TEPD.

The process of TEPD promotes teacher professional development. The relationship between schools and the Bureau of Education. How can one promote this evaluation system that is considered to be difficult by most teachers, how do culture and atmosphere of primary school change?

Officers' personal viewpoints and the problems of putting TEPD into practice in recent years.

Understanding the strategies to support TEPD. Methods to improve TEPD. Positive or negative influences on the teacher. Opinion of how the teacher grading system or assessment of teacher achievement is related to the results of TEPD.

Appendix IV: Interview Questions for Primary Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan (Head Teacher)

This interview is composed of five questions related to teacher evaluation. It would be useful if you could read the questions in advance and think about the answers you would want to give. Once again, I can assure you that no individual or school will be identified in the research.

Thank you very much.

1. From your point of view, what do you understand by "teacher evaluation" at primary school?

1-1 How would you define what primary teacher evaluation is about?

1-2 What is the national expectation involved in primary teacher evaluation?

1-3 How do you feel about TEPD?

1-4 What do teachers need to prepare for primary teacher evaluation? What kinds of evidence might they collect?

1-5 In what ways do you think primary teacher evaluation is or is not related to teacher's salary?

2. Please describe the process in detail and explain how primary teacher evaluation works at your school as far as you know?

2-1 Can you describe the implemented process of TEPD in your school?

2-2 Who are the evaluators in your school?

2-3 When will the primary teachers in your school receive the notice of being evaluated?

2-4 According to your experience, how do teachers prepare for evaluation in your school?

2-5 Which forms of primary teacher evaluation are used in your school? (Self-evaluation, peer-evaluation ...) What's your opinion about them?

2-6 In what ways do you think TEPD can promote teacher professional development?

2-7 What kind of involvement (if any) does the Bureau of Education have in the process?

3.

3-1 Have you ever played the role of an evaluator or evaluatee at primary school before this year? What did you do, and what did you think of the process at that time?

3-2 How do you feel about evaluating other primary head teachers, or being evaluated by teachers?

3-3 Do you think teacher evaluation is worth carrying out? Please explain the reasons.

3-4 Do you see teacher evaluation as a threat or benefit to teachers at primary school?

4. What is the impact of putting primary teacher evaluation for professional development into practice in schools?

4-1 Do you think that primary teacher evaluation has any positive influence on teachers or evaluators? (i.e. in the quality of teaching)

4-2 Do you think primary teacher evaluation has any negative influences on teachers or evaluators?

4-3 What is the effect of primary teacher evaluation on staff relations in school when it is conducted?

4-4 Do you think that primary evaluation leads to a long-term improvement in teaching quality, or are its effects temporary?

4-5 Do you think that the culture and atmosphere of primary school changes as a consequence of primary teacher evaluation?

5. In your opinion, what are the problems of putting teacher evaluation into practice in recent years ? How could the teacher evaluation system be improved?

5-1 What are the strategies to support teachers who perform badly in teacher evaluation? Is it easy or hard to improve their performance?

5-2 Do you think that the evaluation made by the Bureau of Education is fair?

5-3 Do you think that the evaluation made by the head teacher and administrators are fair?

5-4 Do you think that the evaluation made by the Ministry of Education or some other organisations are fair?

5-5 What's your opinion of the relationship between assessment of teacher achievement or the teacher grading system to the results of teacher evaluation?

5-6 If you were the person in power, what would you do to improve the system of teacher evaluation in Taiwan?

6. Is there anything else you would like to say about the TEPD process?

Appendix V: Interview Questions for Primary Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan (Teacher)

This interview is composed of five questions related to teacher evaluation. It would be useful if you could read the questions in advance and think about the answers you would want to give. Once again, I can assure you that no individual or school will be identified in the research.

Thank you very much.

1. From your point of view, what do you understand by "teacher evaluation for professional development" at primary school?

   1-1 How would you define what primary teacher evaluation is about?

   1-2 What kinds of things are involved in primary teacher evaluation?

   1-3 How do you feel about TEPD?

   1-3 What would you do to prepare for primary teacher evaluation? What kinds of evidence might you collect?

   1-4 In what ways do you think primary teacher evaluation is or is not related to your salary?

2. Have you actually experienced TEPD? If yes, then answer Question 3; if no, then go to Question 4.

3. Please describe the process in detail and explain how primary teacher evaluation works at your school as far as you know

   3-1 Who are the evaluators?

   3-2 When will primary teachers receive the notice of being evaluated?

   3-3 If you are told that you will receive primary teacher evaluation, how would you prepare for it?

   3-4 Which forms of primary teacher evaluation do you face? (Self evaluation, peer evaluation ...) What's your opinion about them?

4

   4-1 Have you ever played the role of an evaluator or evaluatee at primary school before? What did you do, and what did you think of the process?

   4-2 How would you feel about appraising other primary teachers, or being evaluated by them?

   4-3 Do you think teacher evaluation is worth carrying out? Please explain why.

   4-4 Do you see teacher evaluation as a threat or benefit to teachers at primary school?

5. What are the impacts of putting primary teacher evaluation into practice in schools?

5-1 Do you think that primary teacher evaluation has any positive influences on teachers or evaluators?

5-2 Do you think primary teacher evaluation has any negative influences on teachers or evaluators?

5-3 What is the effect of primary teacher evaluation on staff relations in school when it is conducted?

5-4 Do you think that primary evaluation leads to a long-term improvement in teaching quality, or are its effects temporary?

5-5 Do you think that the culture and atmosphere of primary schools changes as a consequence of primary teacher evaluation?

6. In your opinion, what are the problems of putting teacher evaluation into practice in recent years ? How could the teacher evaluation system be improved?

6-1 What are the strategies to support teachers who perform badly in teacher evaluation? Is it easy or hard to improve their performance?

6-2 Do you think that the evaluation made by the Bureau of Education is fair?

6-3 Do you think that the evaluation made by the head teacher and administrators are fair?

6-4 Do you think that the evaluation made by the Ministry of Education or some other organisations are fair?

6-5 What's your opinion of the relationship between the assessment of teacher achievement or the teacher grading system to the results of teacher evaluation?

6-6 If you were the person in power, what would you do to improve the system of teacher evaluation in Taiwan?

7. Is there anything else you would like to say about the TEPD process?

Appendix VI: Interview Questions for Primary Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan (Officer)

This interview is composed of five questions related to teacher evaluation. It would be useful if you could read the questions in advance and think about the answers you would want to give. Once again, I can assure you that no individual or school will be identified in the research.

Thank you very much.

1. From your point of view, what do you understand by "teacher evaluation" at primary school?

1-1 How would you define what primary teacher evaluation is about?

1-2 What is the national expectation involved in primary teacher evaluation?

1-3 How do you feel about TEPD?

1-4 What kinds of things are involved in primary teacher evaluation?

1-5 What do teachers need to prepare for primary teacher evaluation? What kinds of evidence might they collect?

1-6 In what ways do you think primary teacher evaluation is or is not related to teachers' salary?

2. Please describe the challenges in TE

2-1 What does the government do when teachers resist TEPD?

2-2 How has TEPD been designed to integrate TEPD and staff support?

2-3 How should teachers prepare for the primary teacher evaluation?

2-4 Will the system be flexible enough to accommodate mid-cycle changes, such as staff leaving or staff joining?

3. What is the link between CPD (Continuing Professional Development) and TEPD?

3-1 What is the role played by CPD played in the implementation of TEPD?

3-2 What strategies are encouraged to help developing the TEPD process in schools?

3-3 How do schools set a developing professional practice objective?

3-4 How does TEPD promote teacher professional development?

4. How do you feel about the TEPD process?

4-1 Do you think that primary teacher evaluation has any positive influences on teachers or evaluators?

4-2 Do you think primary teacher evaluation has any negative influences on teachers or evaluators?

4-3 What is the effect of primary teacher evaluation on staff relations in school when it is conducted?

4-4 Do you think that primary evaluation leads to a long-term improvement in teaching quality, or are its effects temporary?

4-5 Do you think that the culture and atmosphere of primary schools changes as a consequence of primary teacher evaluation?

4-6 Do you think that primary teacher evaluation really improves the teaching quality in the classroom? What is your thought?

5. In your opinion, what have been the problems of putting teacher evaluation into practice in recent years ? How could the teacher evaluation/performance management system be improved?

5-1 What are the strategies to support teachers who perform badly in teacher evaluation? Is it easy or hard to improve their performance?

5-2 Do you think that the evaluation made by the Bureau of Education is fair?

5-3 Do you think that the evaluation made by the head teacher and administrators are fair?

5-4 Do you think that the evaluation made by Ministry of Education or some other organisations are fair?

5-5 What's your opinion of the relationship between assessment of teacher achievement or the teacher grading system to the results of teacher evaluation?

5-6 If you were the person in power, what would you do to improve the system of teacher evaluation in Taiwan?

6. Is there anything else you would like to say about the TE process?

Appendix Ⅶ: References to the Criteria of Teacher Evaluation for Professional Development

Developer of system	MoE	Pan Hui-Ling, *et al.*	Chang De-Rui *et al.*	Chang De-Rui *et al.*	Chang De-Rui	Chang Xin-Ren *et al.*	Chang Xin-Ren *et al.*	Lu Chui-ching
Year	2006	2007	1994	2001	2002	2002	2002	2000
Name of system	TEPD	Manual of professional development evaluation for teachers of and below the senior secondary school level	Developmental Guidance for Teaching	Teaching Professional Development	Portfolio of Developmental Teaching		Portfolio of Assessment Standards for Primary and Secondary School Teachers	Indicators/ standards of teachers' professional development
Targeted Object(s) of Application	For primary and secondary school teachers	For primary and secondary school teachers	More suitable for primary school teachers	More suitable for secondary school teachers	For primary and secondary school teachers	For primary and secondary school teachers	For primary and secondary school teachers	More suitable for primary school teachers
1. Requirements of the Curriculum Design and Teaching		1. Curriculum Planning 2. Plan of Teaching 3. Presentation of Material 4. Teaching Methods 5. Learning Assessment	A. Clear instructions B. Liveliness and variety C. Effective communication E. Mastery of goal(s)	A. Master teaching objectives B Utilise teaching strategies C. Promote effective communication E. Make good use of assessment feedback	A. Master teaching objectives B Utilise teaching strategies C. Promote effective communication E. Make good use of assessment feedback	1. Mastery of knowledge of the discipline 2. Clear presentation of teaching contents 3. Flexible use of teaching strategies 5. Effective guide towards the implementation of experiments or activities	1.Design and reflections of curriculum 2. Assessment of the outcome of students' learning	A. Understand and design curriculum B. Master all the teaching material C. Effective running of teaching activities D. Utilise appropriate teaching methods E. Make good use of instructional media (e.g. technology) to facilitate teaching F. Effective assessment of teaching
2. Classroom Management and		6. Classroom management	D. Classroom management	D. To create a good learning environment	D. To create a good learning environment	6. Master good classroom	3. Classroom management and	G. Create an environment that

Counselling		7. Management of information				management skills	counselling	promotes physical and mental well-being H. Create and maintain rules in the classroom I. Provide a good counselling service for students J. Establish healthy and happy teacher–student relationships
3. Research Development and Training		8. Personal development 9. Professional development					4. Research development and progress	K. Can engage in research- related activities and make steady progress
4. Professionalism and Attitude		10. Professionalism			F. Carrying out professional responsibilities		5. Administration and service	L. Show one's professionalism while teaching
5. Others		11. Teaching evaluation 12. Evaluation of curriculum					8. Professional background	
6. Notes		This has been tried out in some schools in Taipei County. It is still progressively tested for further promotion.	This has been tested in some schools in Taipei City, Yilan County, Taichung City, Tainan City and some other counties/cities.	This has been tested in some schools in Taipei City, Yilan County, Taichung City, Tainan City and some other counties/cities.	This has been tested in some schools in Taipei City, Yilan County, Taichung City, Tainan City and some other counties/cities.	This has been tested in some schools in Kaohsiung City, Yilan County, Kaohsiung County, Tainan City.	This has been tested in some schools in Kaohsiung City, Yilan County, Kaohsiung County, Tainan City.	This has been tested in some schools in Taichung County

(Researcher's summary of the resources from the TEPD's official website)

Appendix VIII: Ethical Guidelines: Information for Participants

Title: The Implementation of Teacher Evaluation in Taiwan

Initial Research Aim: This is an investigation into the complexities of implementing teacher evaluation at primary school level in Taiwan. It focuses primarily on the development of teacher evaluation in Taiwan in the light of consideration of international research, especially that pertaining to the English context, and aims to provide a significant resource for future enactment and promotion of TE policy in Taiwan.

Main Objectives of the Study:

- To review the international literature relating to the strengths and limitations of teacher evaluation models.
- To draw upon the English experience of implementing teacher evaluation.
- To carry out a detailed critical analysis of the development of the TE policy in Taiwan.
- To undertake empirical studies in Taiwan to elicit implementers' perspectives of the strengths and limitations of the trial/experimental models.
- To explore the implications of TE in Taiwan.
- To see the ways on which my personal experience and knowledge as a teacher can be applied to the research

Study Data: This will be gathered by interviewing 7 teachers, 3 head teachers and 3 officers.

Additional Data:

- Self-evaluation form: to gain the form in order to understand the content and process of evaluation.
- Observation form: to gain the form in order to understand the content and key elements of observation.
- Comprehensive form: to gain the form in order to understand the global view of the content and process of evaluation.

- Meeting records: to gain these records in order to understand the process of decision- making.

Appendix IX: Ethical Guidelines for the Study

Introduction

These guidelines are intended to explain the procedures that will be adopted in order to protect the rights of individuals who may be involved in the study. The guidelines are set out as answers to questions that participants might want to ask.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this study is to explore the complexities of implementing teacher evaluation at primary school level in Taiwan. Through implementers' voices, i.e. teachers, head teachers and officers, organise an effective teacher evaluation model for Taiwanese government.

What kind of information will be collected?

Data will be mainly collected through interview, as well as an investigation of documentary evidence provided by the school.

Who will collect the data?

The data will be collected by Chao-Wen Liu who has experience as a primary class teacher, head teacher and educational researcher.

How will anonymity be preserved?

The resulting PhD thesis will be available to the student's supervisor and his internal and external examiners. Once accepted, it will also be available for reference through the library of the University of Bristol, Graduate School of Education. The schools which take part in the study will be referred to by pseudonym only. Individuals will be referred to rather by pseudonym or their role description. Any conference papers which result from the study will also preserve the privacy of all who are touched by the research: teachers, head teachers and officers.

How will the researcher seek access to the information?

- The researcher will seek reasonable access to personnel working in participating schools.

- He will make himself easily accessible through e-mail, visits and telephone calls, in order to answer procedural and other queries as they arise during the course of the study.
- Participants will be under no obligation to be interviewed and may withdraw from the study at any time.
- The researcher will treat all relevant interviews, meeting and written exchanges with participants as one the record but confidential, unless specifically asked to disregard them.
- The research may wish to record and transcribe interviews. If this is the case permission will be sought from participants beforehand.
- Participants will be given every opportunity to check and verify data collected, together with any subsequent writings.
- Participants' views will be sought on the interpretations made by the researcher on the data collected.

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